The Nation.

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The Week.

It is as characteristic of "leading Republican Senators" to go to the President and ask him quietly to withdraw the nomination of the negro, Dr. Crum, as it is of Mr. Roosevelt to tell them that he will do no such thing. He has met his responsibility, let them meet theirs. If they are afraid to have their constituents know that they are ready to subscribe to the new Republican doctrine that color shall be the final test of a man's fitness to hold office, that is no affair of the President's. There is the nomination: take it or leave it. It is time that the Republican party declared its position on the question of the negro's fundamental rights. Nor will the dodge of simply leaving Dr. Crum's name unacted upon until the session expires work. In that case, President Roosevelt will make a recess appointment. Why not? Is not the nominee honest, educated, competent? "Yes, Mr. President, but he is black." That reason, however, can hardly be expected to draw from the successor of Lincoln anything but a citation of Lincoln's reproachful words addressed to those who would dash from the lips of negroes the "cup of liberty."

The Paris *Temps*, commenting on the revival of oppression of the negro in this country, is fair-minded enough to admit that other nations are sharing with the United States in the "general moral slump," as regards treatment of inferior races. We really do not know of any great Power which is entitled to cast a stone at us. Even England seems about to enter upon a system of slavery—"forced labor" it is euphemistically called—in South Africa. If the great mining capitalists have their way, something of the kind will be attempted. So humane a writer as Mr. Benjamin Kidd (undoubtedly humane even with all his transcendental moonshine) allows himself to speak of the "proper place" for the blacks in the Transvaal and Orange River—that is, working like slaves for English exploiters. The plain truth is that this sudden access of contempt for inferior races, and of cool disregard of their rights, is a necessary reflex of the wave of Imperialism and conquest which has swept over the whole world within the last decade. The new movement against the negro is a direct product of the spirit engendered by our treatment of the Filipinos. When you begin disfranchising and maltreating brown skins, you pass on easily to black. We were promised that our good colonial government would react happily on government at home. The movement to deprive the negro of his political rights shows that the reaction has, indeed, set in—with a vengeance!

New discoveries of the meaning of Senatorial courtesy are being made daily. It now appears that this benign institution may extend so far as to include the passage of bills of the most far-reaching importance without discussion or debate, but with a rapidity which is fairly amazing. As everybody knows, the Senate is deadlocked on the Statehood bill. Senator Quay is, to all outward appearances, still master of the situation, and nobody seems inclined to bring on a vote to find out whether or not he has a majority to sustain him. In former days such a condition meant a blockade of legislation. Now, however, the pending measure is frequently permitted to be laid aside by general consent, while the Senate considers and passes a bill or resolution "not involving discussion," but perhaps creating a new executive department, affecting the procedure in our highest courts, or looking to the settlement of a boundary dispute between this and a foreign nation. Possibly this is the "peaceful blockade" in legislation. Undoubtedly it is attended with some dangers, but it is, in any event, a great improvement over the old system under which long-winded orators threatened even the appropriation bills in order to effect their purposes.

With the passage of the bill against rebates on Friday, anti-Trust legislation for the present session of Congress is at an end. Obviously, it is nothing but the steady demand of the President which has extorted from a reluctant Congress as much as it has finally and grudgingly granted. The result shows that he rightly interpreted the popular wish that some action be taken. But for his hearty backing by the constituencies, he could not have made Congress budge. What has been done is, of course, only a beginning. It falls far short of the President's full programme. But certain instruments have now been placed in his hands, and it is for him to make vigorous use of them. If, for example, complaints are made, as they were before the Industrial Commission, that American corporations make domestic consumers pay higher prices than foreign purchasers, it is for the new Bureau of Corporations to investigate and expose the abuse. And if it finds that the practice is permitted, if not directly encouraged, by a protective tariff, it must report that fact to the President as a guide to him in recommending remedial legislation. The President has put his hand to the plough, and cannot look back.

Attention has been so closely directed to the anti-Trust amendment of the bill to create a Department of Commerce that its main object has been practically lost to sight. Yet the new Executive Department, under direction of a vigorous head, may do much to coördinate and improve several important branches of the public service. The Steamship Inspection Service, for example, whose laxness is notorious, is to be transferred from the Treasury to the Department of Commerce, we hope to the public advantage. As for the Nelson amendment providing for publicity for corporations engaged in interstate or foreign commerce, we observe a rather comic dread of the power which it confers on the President. The information gathered is to be reported to him, and "as much thereof as the President may direct shall be made public." What a dangerous power, exclaim certain newspapers, to lodge in the hands of an unscrupulous President! The joke of all this lies in the fact that these objectors are the very ones who rushed joyfully to give the President powers compared with which those granted by the Nelson bill are a mere nothing. When in 1898 it was proposed that Congress should vote the President $50,000,000 to do with as he pleased, these critics who dread the lodging of power in the President had nothing but applause. When it was a question of our Chief Executive governing 8,000,000 of people across the seas according to his own notions of justice, again these belated opponents of a swollen Presidential prerogative saw nothing but what was fair and good and Constitutional and American. It is only when they see a possibility of his governing *them* against their will that they cry out.

Through the appointment of Mr. James R. Garfield as Commissioner of Corporations in the new Department of Commerce, the President has emphasized the character which that body already was assuming. With Mr. Cortelyou at the head, it will be, in no invidious sense, the President's personal department, through which he can work relatively unhampered by party considerations, and unrestricted by any vague obligation to continue the policy of his predecessor. Mr. Garfield, in his connection with Ohio politics, and recently as Civil Service Commissioner, has gained a reputation for steadiness, ability, and complete independence. In his hands the power of investigating corporations en-

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gaged in interstate commerce is not likely either to be used recklessly or to wither for want of exercise. In adding this office and power to the Department of Commerce, Congress has very possibly put into the President's hands a serviceable weapon where it supposed it was presenting him with a broadsword of lath. Our only regret at Mr. Garfield's transfer is that it takes him from an important work for which he was admirably fitted, and in which he has been highly successful.

Contrary to all expectations, the Alaskan boundary treaty easily ran the Senate blockade, and now awaits only the appointment of three American and three British Commissioners. The first duty of this Commission is to interpret that section of the Anglo-Russian treaty of 1825 which described the boundary between Alaska and the British possessions. About the beginning of the line there is no dispute. It begins at the southern tip of Prince of Wales Island and runs north along Portland Channel. What Portland Channel was in 1825 must be settled by the Commission. There is a choice between two straits. The Anglo-Russian negotiators of 1825 supposed their task to be accomplished when they had brought the boundary line to the mainland, for they imagined that a clearly defined coast range formed a natural boundary. As a matter of fact, there is no such range for three hundred miles or so, and the Commissioners must fall back upon a clause which the original negotiators framed prudentially, but hardly expected to use —the famous clause which, in default of a mountain crest, draws the line ten marine leagues from the coast and parallel to its sinuosities. The point at issue is, What is "the coast," in the sense of the Anglo-Russian treaty? It is certain that neither of the signatories of 1825 knew in any accurate sense. Their ignorance is the opportunity of the joint Commission.

This Commission will have to decide, in cases where the ten-league line must be run, (1) if it is to be run from an arbitrary line spanning the numerous small inlets, or (2) from the beginning of territorial waters of the United States, or (3) from the heads of even the smallest inlets. It is in many ways a most complicated problem. Successive rows of islands carry the outer coast and the territorial waters of Alaska a hundred miles from the mainland, while Lynn Canal runs as far inland to the roots of the mountains. There can be no doubt that the Russians, who were chiefly interested in the seal and other fisheries, intended to claim the ownership of all the islands. Whether they meant to assert control over "the mainland strip" (which the treaty of 1825 distinguishes from "the coast"), or whether (the Canadian contention) they wished to maintain only a foothold on the mainland, the new Commission must decide. The problem is primarily a geographical one, like the equally difficult one, recently settled by British arbitration—the Argentine-Chilian boundary in the Andes. If the joint Commission agrees upon an interpretation of the treaty of 1825, there may still be something to do to get a reasonable line. Possibly, even, a supplementary arbitration may follow the judicial decision. But any fair compromise may be easily made when once the coast of Alaska shall be satisfactorily defined.

Senator Lodge's idea of "cruelty" seems to be on a sliding scale: When trying on Saturday to persuade the Senate to take up the Philippine tariff bill, he asserted that, in view of conditions in the islands, it would be "absolute cruelty" for Congress to fail to act. Thereupon Senator Foraker asked him why he had made the bill less liberal than the form in which it passed the House. The House proposed to tax the Filipinos only 25 per cent. of the Dingley rates. But Lodge's Committee took that bill and sat down quickly and wrote 50 per cent. That is to say, the tender-hearted Massachusetts Senator was willing to be 25 per cent. more cruel to our Philippine subjects than the House. Senator Foraker pressed him hard. Why could we not treat our dependent peoples decently? Why not at least come somewhere near giving them free trade? Lodge was forced to admit that, personally, he should like to be more generous, but that it would be "impossible" to get through any bill less selfish than the one he was reporting. As it turned out, he could not get even that bill through. Beet-sugar Senators rose to object to as much as the 50 per cent. of injustice which Lodge was urging, and the bill went over. Such embarrassments does a statesman meet when he undertakes to make cruelty a problem in proportion!

A weightily signed petition calls upon the Senate Committee on the Philippines to sit during the recess of Congress and take testimony as to the actual conditions in the islands. The names attached to this petition speak for themselves. They show a widespread belief among men of the highest standing and influence that everything is not as rosy in the Philippines as the Imperialistic imagination paints it. Most significant is the demand that Filipinos themselves be summoned to testify. Their careful exclusion thus far evidently impresses this host of college men as both unfair and unwise. Senator Lodge's committee may pay no attention to this petition, so representative of the university world, but its very presentation is a sign of the times which no real statesman could afford to neglect. Senator Hoar very properly called attention to the extraordinary significance of such a petition, so signed, as he presented it in the Senate.

The argument of the well-known writer, Mr. Henry Demarest Lloyd, cast an interesting light on the anthracite hearing on Monday week. Concerning non-union workmen who labor during a strike, he said that, while they were strictly within their legal rights, they violated "a moral law of the highest sanctity"—the law that "a man must do what he can to help along a necessary struggle for the elevation of his own class and of society at large." Failing in this duty, "obloquy" properly falls upon a workman, as it did upon Tories during the American Revolution. But this doctrine bristles with sheer assumptions and perilous implications. When capital forces all of us to work for the elevation of its class, will Mr. Lloyd tell us that it does well? The attempt to give a kind of religious sanction to social agitation leads to all manner of violent thought and action. Mr. Lloyd is a man of peace, and a believer in the power of reason. In this capacity, he should realize the relative meaning of words. When he says that "obloquy" is the proper penalty for the crime of working for one's self, the less intelligent strikers understand terrorism. If he is willing to admit any method of union propaganda except that of peaceful persuasion, he must be willing to admit all the methods by which violent and untrained minds express their obloquy. Is unionism to assert an intolerance which theology has long given over, maintaining that it holds in its hands the issues of life and of death?

President Baer's eloquent address before the Strike Commission on Thursday is a distinctly valuable contribution to the rapidly growing literature upon the relations of capital and labor. His indictment of the outrages and the tyrannical nature of the United Mine Workers' Union is unanswerable, while his offer of an increase of wages on a sliding scale will undoubtedly figure prominently in the findings of the Commission. He was on difficult ground when he spoke of the number of laborers and their employment. It is true that no one should have the right to prevent law-abiding employers from taking labor which presents itself, and is ready to accept the wages offered. But there is a great difference between the acceptance of such labor and importing thousands of foreigners into already over-manned mining districts where permanent and steady employment is almost unknown. President Baer was at his best in his denunciation of the law-

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lessness and destructiveness of the Miners' Union, as evidenced in numberless instances during the strike. Furthermore, his demolition of the new doctrine of labor—namely, that "a man who works during a strike has no moral right to work if his work destroys the hopes and aspirations of his fellow-men"—was complete. A more un-American, undemocratic, and immoral doctrine was never promulgated.

Mr. Darrow, counsel for the United Mine Workers, practically admitted, in his argument before the Strike Commission on Friday, that violence and outrage are necessary accompaniments of a great strike. If the operators were in the place of the men, he said, they would not hesitate to resort to the boycott and intimidation and clubbing. Possibly not; but they would be criminals and enemies of society if they took to rioting and murdering, whether they said they were doing their class a sacred service or not. Mr. Darrow appealed to the Commission to bear in mind the "environment" of the strikers who became violent. That Pole who "struck James Winston on the head with a club" was only acting out his nature. The same might be said of any thief or cutthroat. It is the business of the police and courts to make a new "environment" for lawbreakers—namely, that of a prison cell. If we begin excusing "crimes of passion," where shall we stop? Mr. Darrow, however, deserves credit for his frankness in recognizing the fact that mob law is an essential part of the Mine Workers' programme.

Another proof of the sacred purpose of the United Mine Workers to struggle for "the elevation of their own class," as Mr. Lloyd puts it, is seen in the limitation of the advance in wages, which they have secured, purely to union workers in the bituminous field. In the Pittsburgh district, for example, there are 40,000 miners, and the United Mine Workers do not claim a membership of more than 15,000. Yet the benefit of higher wages is to be confined to the latter, so the union leader of the district coolly announces. This is probably a bit of union strategy, designed to compel the non-union miner to surrender his personal liberty; but what a light it throws upon the alleged altruism of the United Mine Workers! Could a Trust more selfishly clutch at a monopoly, more cruelly disregard the welfare of all outside it? When Mr. Lloyd says "class," he doubtless means all workingmen; but the union understands by it simply the monopoly of labor at which it aims.

The representatives of the labor unions who opposed at Albany last week the Hughes bill to protect National Guardsmen, came dangerously near going on record in favor of rioting and lawlessness. The bill has no other object than to make it possible for a union workman to serve in the militia of this State in defence of peace and order. Yet it was denounced as an "insult to organized labor," and as an attempt to legislate on behalf of non-union men. Throughout the hearing, the labor men took the position that the National Guard is run in the interest of the capitalists, and an uninformed listener might well have thought that the State troops have been employed simply to make successful strikes impossible. Were this so, union men would never dream of entering the militia, and the Hughes bill would be unnecessary. As a matter of fact, there is no case on record in this or any other State in which the State troops have taken one side or the other. If anything, they have shown their sympathy with the strikers, as in Waterbury recently. But their actions have everywhere been directed solely towards the preservation of order. If it is right to criticise the militia for this, it is right to criticise every police force. Logically carried out, the contention of the labor unions means anarchy pure and simple. Their utterances at Albany would give good grounds for the belief that, in their opinion, no industrial strike can succeed if the strikers cannot resort to intimidation and personal violence.

In his second paper in the *Outlook* on the subject of Addicks and Delaware, Mr. George Kennan makes some interesting revelations as to the systematic methods by which the corruptionist went about his work of buying a seat in the United States Senate. He employed a young attorney to make an investigation into the circumstances of each member of the Legislature. The questions which he desired to have answered were: Who is he? Where is he from? What is his age? Is he married or single? If married, how many children has he? Does he own any real estate, and if so, are there any mortgages on it? What is he thought to be worth? and, What are his habits and general reputation? The use Addicks made of this information is obvious. According to the cynical view of the bribe-giver, a poor man, with a large family and a mortgage on his farm, could safely be approached with direct offers of money, while a legislator differently circumstanced must be reached by more subtle means. Addicks made lavish contributions to the campaign expenses of legislative candidates, giving them every opportunity to misappropriate the funds placed in their hands, thus bringing them within his power. His system was to take advantage of weakness and adroitly to undermine character. That with all his money, method, and tenacity of evil purpose, year after year brought him nothing but failure, must ever be to the high honor of the State of Delaware.

The announcement that Mrs. Stanford is preparing to surrender her control of the affairs of Stanford University into the hands of a board of trustees will gratify friends of learning throughout the country. In founding a university in memory of Leland Stanford, jr., Senator and Mrs. Stanford did well; but Mrs. Stanford, though actuated by the best intentions, has not always been wise in her management. Her intolerance resulted two years ago in the dismissal of one professor and the resignation of a number of the strongest members of her faculty. The task of President David Starr Jordan has been peculiarly difficult. In his endeavor to perfect a *modus vivendi* between Mrs. Stanford and her faculty he has been compelled to carry water on both shoulders, and now and then to turn a pretty sharp corner. He will find the change an enormous relief; he will be able to give to the problems of university development the time and energy that he has hitherto been devoting to diplomacy; and he can now hope to engage and retain the services of the ablest teachers and investigators. In the hands of competent trustees Stanford University, with its splendid endowment, should in time fulfil the noblest aim of its founders.

All intelligent lovers of musical drama will rejoice in the decision of the Metropolitan directors by which Mr. Conried becomes manager of the opera for a term of five years. Mr. Conried comes to this work under the most favorable conditions. In Mr. Hertz he inherits an admirable conductor from Mr. Grau, while the prestige of the New York Opera House has so risen that the new manager will have no difficulty in securing the best singers. The choice of the Metropolitan directors is peculiarly acceptable, because it gives assurance that the opera will be managed, not for the display of a few great singers, but with an equal attention to all the details of stage management, to the minor parts, and to the chorus. Mr. Conried's attitude toward these important and often neglected matters is shown in the acting of his own excellent stock company at the Irving Place Theatre. He will carry these principles into his larger work. We may assume that he will no more put up with a chorus that, in German opera, sings two-word parts in German and two-line parts in Italian, than he would tolerate an amateur bandmaster as conductor of his orchestra. Building upon the foundation of financial prosperity laid by Mr. Grau, and falling heir to Mr. Grau's tact in selecting great singers, Mr. Conried has every prospect of renewing the glories of the old Metropolitan Opera House. His successful candidacy is a success for art.

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THE REACTION TOWARDS SLAVERY

A Republican committee of a Republican Senate devoted Lincoln's birthday to the shutting of one more door of hope in the face of the slaves whom Lincoln freed. Dr. Crum has been pronounced unfit to hold Federal office—simply because he is a black man. It is agreed that his character is above reproach and his ability out of the common. He is the type of those "very intelligent" negroes upon whom Lincoln wished to confer the suffrage, long before his party was ready so to do, and upon whom he would, by necessary inference, have been glad to bestow office. Lincoln could not have failed to sympathize with Sumner's later position—namely, that a fit colored man in a proper office was a "constant testimony and argument" for equal rights. No wonder that our latter-day recreancy to the principles of Lincoln should have called from Archbishop Ireland in Chicago on Thursday the indignant words, "To announce that the citizen who is black must not aspire to a political life, must not approach the ballot-box, is to war against American institutions."

The two things go together. Disqualification for office means, for the negro, disfranchisement. The New York *Sun* is bold enough to speak out openly what many are saying privately. It would have the ballot taken from the black man. To have given it to him at all was, it says, a blunder. Senator Hoar tells us of a Republican colleague who goes further, and maintains that it was a mistake to have abolished slavery. That is logical, for the movement to deprive the negro of his political rights is really a movement towards reënslaving him. People talk glibly about preserving to him his "civil rights"—the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—after his political rights are extinguished, but this is to fly in the face of history. Have we got to argue over again the Reconstruction debates of 1867? Must some new Sumner arise to tell us that "a righteous government cannot be founded on the exclusion of a race"?

Disabilities cannot be effectually removed except by conferring privileges. There is no half-way house between a slave and a citizen. Every attempt to stop short in the process of freedom is a confessed failure. Look at Catholic Emancipation in England. It began with the removal of positive stigma, of political pains and penalties inflicted upon Catholics as such; but for a long time the disqualification to hold office remained. Against that lingering injustice, humane lovers of liberty had to contend. To say that Catholics had all their civil rights, yet could not hold office, was felt to be an absurdity. "What have you done?" asked Wilberforce, whose sympathies for the oppressed knew no white or black. "You have let them out of prison, but you still compel them to wear prison garb."

Herein lies the portentous importance of Dr. Crum's case. In him the prejudice of caste strikes at his whole race. His rejection confirms Secretary Root's description of the mighty question that is soon to confront this republic. The South, with an alarming amount of aid and comfort from the North, is determined to drive colored men from office, and to rob them of the ballot. A member of a Republican Cabinet stands up before the veterans of the Union League Club and tells them that negro suffrage is a failure. No outcry follows, no protests are heard. No champion of the black man arises in Congress to make a flaming appeal to the fundamental principles of democracy, or to the memories of our heroic age. It is left for a Catholic prelate to tell these conspirators against the negro's political rights that they are striking at the heart of this nation.

Negro suffrage a failure? So, with as much evidence, is Irish suffrage in this country a failure, or German, or Polish, or Italian suffrage. But does any one propose to take the freeman's weapon—the ballot—from the men who have come to us from foreign lands? Municipal suffrage as a whole might be said to be a failure in this country. But for this are we going to disfranchise cities? That is not the democratic way. That is not the patriotic, the Christian, the truly enlightened way. If any class of the electorate is ignorant, it is our business to see that it is educated. If it is a prey to designing politicians, we must not throw up our hands, confess that trickery is too much for honesty, and call for the disfranchisement of voters whom corruptionists can debauch but whom we are too lazy to persuade. We get down to the fundamentals of democracy, in this business. "We must teach our masters to read," said Robert Lowe, when the extension of the suffrage in England was carried in 1867. That is the secret of democratic progress; of the cumulative amelioration of conditions. The reason why this country has been, as Goldwin Smith has said, a vast hopper into which all sorts of races have been poured and come out citizens of the republic, is that there has been this constant appeal to the intelligent classes to defend themselves against the ignorant and the degraded by educating and elevating them. Strip the black man of his political rights and you cut the nerve of negro education.

Yes, and why educate him at all if the natural fruits of education are to be denied him? Dr. Crum of Charleston is admitted to be an educated gentleman. He stands head and shoulders above the people of his own race. He represents the colored man who has risen, as the disfranchisers say they would like to see all negroes rise. But how can they be expected to want to rise when they see the ordinary recognition and reward of ability and character withheld from a man who has risen, simply on account of the color of his skin? We involve ourselves in all sorts of embarrassments and contradictions the moment we depart from the plain democratic principle of opportunity and a career open to talent irrespective of the accident of birth. If we will not let men freely rise, be they black or red, even if we do not thrust them back into bondage we create for them a limbo of contempt, injustice, and cruelty, which has all the horrid features of the slaveholding relation.

It is a tremendous issue that is forced upon us in this new oppression of the negro. It is big with the fate of parties and of the nation itself. It looms large on the horizon as the question which, in the next few months, will be a supreme test of the Republican party, and will show whether it has indeed turned its back upon its founders and martyrs.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

The full text of the report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Steamship Subsidies, now at hand, embraces some noteworthy features. The most important of these is the survey of the shipping subsidies paid by the various governments of the world. Among the witnesses examined, there were differences of opinion on the question whether Great Britain now pays more than a fair *quid pro quo* for any steamship service. Mr. Buxton Forman, representing the Post-office, thought that in some cases more than the postal value of the service was paid for carrying the mails. On the other hand, Sir Spencer Walpole, a former Secretary of the Post-office, was satisfied that full value was obtained in all cases. The Committee does not attempt to decide this question. It publishes a full statement of the mail payments, which amount to $3,676,690 per year, for the United Kingdom. Nearly half of this sum goes to the Peninsular and Oriental Company for its Indian, Australian, and Chinese service, being $1,603,800 per year. The company itself considers this sum very inadequate even for purely postal services, but continues to do the work and pays fair dividends to its shareholders. In addition to mail payments, there are admiralty subventions amounting to $378,171 altogether.

German state subsidies to steamship lines amount to $1,688,850, of which $1,200,800 goes to the North German Lloyd for Asian and Australian service. The Hamburg-American Line receives no state subsidy, but that company and the North German Lloyd together receive $315,900 from the German Post-office for carrying the mails from Hamburg and Bremen to America. The Committee thinks that an indirect subsidy is grant-

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ed to German steamships by preferential railway rates on goods destined for East Africa and the Levant. The fact is noted that the North German Lloyd has more than doubled its tonnage in five years. How much of this gain is due to subsidies, direct and indirect, and how much to the "energy and enterprise of the recipient," the Committee does not attempt to decide. The North German Lloyd, like the Peninsular and Oriental Company, considers itself very inadequately paid for its Asian and Australian service.

France pays more for steamship subsidies than any other country, and gets less for her money. There was entered in her budget for 1901 no less than $8,686,137 for subsidies, for bounties on shipbuilding, and for premiums for voyages made. France pays bounties on foreign steamers of iron or steel employed by Frenchmen in ocean or international coasting trade. Two-fifths of the tonnage under payment is of this class, and one-fifth consists of sailing vessels. "All of these subsidies," says the report, "are quite out of proportion to the services rendered, and, speaking generally, it is certain that French trade has not advanced with the increased munificence of the subsidies, while French shipowners, and especially French sailing-ship owners, have unduly benefited at the expense of their country."

Japan has gone into subsidies rather recklessly in late years. In 1899 the total amount paid was $2,841,632. Since that time new lines have been subsidized to China, Korea, Australia, and Bombay, the payments on which amount to $781,978. The present aggregate of $3,623,610 would seem to be beyond the limits of reason and prudence, if not beyond the resources of the nation.

Holland has a flourishing mercantile marine, but she pays no subsidies either for construction or for navigation. Her payments for mail service are on the basis of value received. Norway pays $50,000 for mail service on the same basis, and $84,940 for "facilitating steamer communications." It is a curious fact that complaint has been made by British shipowners at Hull that Norwegian subsidies, and the low rate of wages paid to Norwegian sailors, are seriously damaging British trade.

The report tells us that the United States does not pay any general subsidies, but does pay for mail carriage in American-owned ships much more than the service could be obtained for. It first pays $15,000 per voyage (in the transatlantic service) without regard to the weights carried. Then it pays $1.60 per pound for letters and post cards, and 8 cents per pound for other mail matter, the rates paid to foreign ships being about 44 cents per pound for letters and post cards, and 4½ cents for other matter.

The fact is pointed out with some misgiving that Great Britain has fallen behind Germany in the matter of speed, and that the *Oceanic* has passed under American control with the White Star Line. The necessities of the British national prosperity, however, are inextricably bound up with the possession of a strong navy and a fast mercantile marine. Therefore, in the opinion of the Committee, speed should be a condition of all ocean mail contracts hereafter, and in some cases very high speed should be required, since such ships might be needed as carriers of the food supply of the United Kingdom in time of war.

Closely connected with the public safety also is the right of transfer of British ships to foreigners. The Committee is of the opinion that no mail or admiralty subsidy should be paid except on the condition that the ship shall not be transferred in whole or in part to foreigners without the consent of the Government—the penalty for violation of the agreement being forfeiture of the subsidy and the ship. It is pointed out that such an agreement exists between the North German Lloyd and the German Government in respect to the subsidized ships of that company.

Considerable space is given to the question of shipping "conferences," by which term is meant agreements of shipowners to maintain rates, or to advance them as against the public, or to lower them as against new competitors. Instances are cited showing that many of the evils of railway monopoly exist also in steamship traffic, and that a "long and short-haul clause" would not come amiss in certain cases. For example, goods have been taken from Amsterdam to Java via Liverpool at 20s. per ton, while the rate charged from Liverpool to Java is 30s. per ton. With some hesitation, the Committee recommends that the Government retain some control over the rates to be charged by ships running under subsidy, for "if a company merely aims at a fair and reasonable rate it ought to have no ground to fear the control; if it aims at something more, the control is obviously desirable."

The question whether foreign subsidies have had a damaging effect upon British trade is examined at some length. The conclusion is reached that British shipping has maintained its flourishing position and held its own in most places, despite subsidies paid to competitors. Between 1890 and 1902, British steam tonnage increased from 8,250,000 to 13,500,000 tons, while that of Germany rose only from 928,000 to 2,600,000. Germany's percentage of increase was greater than England's, however, because she began at a lower figure. "It is easier to increase from 1 to 2 than from 100 to 200." It is admitted that the disproportionate bounties paid by France to sailing vessels (1f. 70c. per gross ton per 1,000 miles sailed) have given them some advantage over British sailing-vessels, but it is not deemed expedient to offset this advantage by a resort to bounties, nor do British shipowners recommend such a policy. They are generally opposed to subsidies except as fair payment for services rendered. The Committee thinks, however, that a special case for subsidy exists in the need of direct communication with British East Africa. At present a transshipment has to be made at Aden. Germany has a direct line to her East African possessions, and has thereby increased her trade.

ARCHITECTS AND AMATEURS.

That watchdog of the Treasury, Mr. Cannon, on Wednesday week, gave his support to a bill to erect an office building for the House of Representatives, at a cost of $3,100,000, and to add an east wing to the Capitol at a cost of $2,500,000. Under the amendments introduced by him, the responsibility for these great constructions falls to Mr. Wood, Superintendent of the Capitol Building and Grounds. The next day, in a spirited debate on the appropriation for the recent improvements of the White House, Mr. Cannon, speaking of architects, exclaimed: "I have sometimes thought that I would gladly contribute to help raise a million dollars to assassinate large portions of them." From Mr. Cannon's unwonted liberality in the appropriation bill and from his murderous intentions towards the entire architectural profession, it might safely be inferred that Superintendent Wood, who is to have the charge of the spending of five million dollars, is no architect.

Such is notoriously the case. Mr. Wood, for years the chief clerk of the late Mr. Clarke, Architect of the Capitol, has had an honorable record in managing the business of the office. He has made himself acceptable to the Senators and Representatives. His appointment, however, was a subterfuge. Lacking all architectural training, he was obviously ineligible for the position of Architect of the Capitol. Accordingly, that post was abolished, and Mr. Wood was made Superintendent of the Capitol Building and Grounds, on the understanding that his duties were to be limited to keeping up the present building. He promptly showed his incapacity for even this modest function by having Statuary Hall smeared in imitation of colored marbles. He had begun a similar disfigurement of the dignified and historic room in which the Supreme Court sits, when he was restrained by one of the justices. Now, thanks to Mr. Cannon, it is proposed to put in Mr. Wood's hands a great building facing the Capitol, and to intrust to his ignorance the carrying out of Thomas U. Walter's plan for the east wing of the Capitol. Surely Mr. Cannon has shown most signally his contempt for the architect's profession.

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We have no idea that the bill can pass in its present form. If the House shares Mr. Cannon's dislike of architects, the Senate will realize that no amateur must be allowed to touch the building —one of the most impressive in the world—which all Americans regard with a peculiar reverence and affection. Mr. Cannon's idiosyncracies may impose themselves upon the House, but the Senate will ask why, in the case of the most precious of the Government buildings, a plan utterly out of keeping with the present-day spirit of Washington is pursued. The Senate will see the inconsistency of spending vast sums upon the general improvement of the outlying park system of the Capital City, while its very heart is left to the mercy of a clerk exalted through personal and political influence to an architect's position.

It is curious in this connection to note that, whereas the Government requires special skill in a Fish Commisioner, an astronomer, a statistician, and the rest, it often exacts only good intentions of an architect. This is due to a deplorable lack of training in this respect on the part of our public men. In the debate last Thursday on the new White House offices, Congressmen Gaines and Fitzgerald indulged in all manner of cheap witticism at the expense of what is for its purpose a very sensible and satisfactory building. They did not seem to realize that the all-important thing was to maintain the historic White House intact, and to provide a temporary office for the President, pending the erection of a permanent building for the Executive and the Departments of State and Justice. The architect of the "Little White House" had at best an ungrateful task; any new structure on the President's grounds is something of a necessary evil. But Mr. McKim's solution of the immediate problem of making a habitable house and practicable offices for the President, has headed off at least one absurd plan for the enlargement of the White House, and its virtual destruction as a historic monument.

It was an architect of the Wood type, Col. Bingham of the United States Engineer Corps, late Superintendent of Public Buildings and Grounds, who for years tried to get his hands on the White House. He was an amiable person, popular in society, and influential with Congress. He had worked out for the enlarged White House a frosted-cake structure of his own planning, in which the old White House was to play the minor but honorable part of the cake. Fortunately, his plan was thwarted and the Executive Mansion preserved in its simple and beautiful proportions. Col. Bingham himself has just been transferred to a position of wider, but unarchitectural, usefulness at Buffalo. The ease with which Washington has lost an amateur architect in his case, leads to the wish that all amateur architects still surviving were army officers, and subject to transfer for the good of the service. This, we submit to Mr. Cannon, would be a worthier plan than that of allowing millions of public money to be spent by an incompetent person, or that of invoking fire and sword upon those whose only fault is that they have studied the profession of architecture before practising it.

WHO ARE THE DREAMERS?

The French Deputy, M. Jaurès, probably the most eloquent man in France, and certainly one who has the respect of all, made the other day a powerful plea for disarmament, in a speech in the Chamber. He is a Socialist, but his great oration was followed with rapt attention by members of all parties. At the close, the Government, with its vast military budget on its hands, felt compelled to attempt to dissipate the profound impression caused by M. Jaurès's description of the way in which the burdens of war, even in time of peace, were crushing to the earth the aspirations of the working classes. Accordingly, Minister Millevoye rose to say that it was only a beautiful dream which the orator had been recounting to the Chamber, and that his solution of the difficulty was purely "idealist," applicable only in the distant future.

This gave M. Jaurès an opportunity for a retort as effective as his original speech had been. "You say that my solution is chimerical. But what is yours? You come here year after year with a programme which, you say, will be sufficient to guard the country against war, and yet each year's programme eats up the one of the preceding twelvemonth. Does that look like the work of severely practical men? Does the charge of lack of finality lie in the mouths of those who shift their argument and change their estimates every year? You affirm that our proposal of disarmament can be realized only at a distant day. *Mon Dieu*, when will your plan of ever-swelling and competitive armaments come to fruition? It is an infinite series of enlarging budgets upon which you bid us enter. If anything is chimerical, it is that policy. If any men are dreamers, it is the men who advocate that course."

We refer to this acute exposure of a fallacy because the latter is one afloat not in France alone. If there is anything stamped all over with evasion and vagueness, it is the building programme of the navy in this country and in Germany at the present day. We might almost add in England. The English formula for a navy has long been the "two-nation" plan. That is, the English navy must be as strong as the combined navies of the two nations nearest it in power. But even this approach to definiteness is now being thrown over. The increasing size of other navies and the possibilities of international alliance have led some English public men—Mr. Asquith, for example—to maintain that Great Britain will not be safe unless she adopts a "three-nation" formula. That is a measurably precise, though a sufficiently disheartening, programme for the British taxpayer. But with us, and with the Germans, plans for naval increase are as shifting as the sands of the sea and conjectural as the flight of a bird.

Who can pin the advocates of a larger navy down to an exact statement of how large it ought to be? Have they a definite basis to go upon? Is there any end to the expense they would have us incur? What we object to in their attitude is its extreme indefiniteness, coupled with the assumption that they alone are exact and business-like, while every one else is a dreamer. The Emperor William hangs up in the ante-room of the Reichstag a chart showing the immense disparity between the number of German and of English battleships. Does that mean that he wants Germany to have as many as England? He knows he could not get them. His appeal is really all in the air. Herr Richter asks for a definite programme, but all he gets is a swelling phrase about Germany's future being on the sea. The battleship-building programme is certainly on the sea—lost there in the fog.

Probably if the Emperor were to tell the honest truth, he would admit that the only definite notion he had was to get as many cruisers and ironclads as he could wheedle or frighten the Reichstag into voting. Certainly that is the nearest approach to a maturely considered plan that can be discerned at Washington. A navy on a peace basis is capable of being defined. So many coaling stations are needed; so many cruisers to serve as an adjunct to the diplomatic service and to protect commerce. But when you launch out into the great unknown of a possible war, as we are asked to do, you are at once in wandering mazes lost. We are not arguing at this moment which policy is the true one for this nation. The only point we make is that the champions of a big navy do not agree among themselves; have no well-defined programme which they can defend; could not tell within $200,000,000 how much money it would take to carry out their ideas, or within fifty years when their plans will be completed. Under these circumstances, we submit that they are the real dreamers. They cherish plans which are in perpetual flux, and demand appropriations which progress in a series ending only in national bankruptcy. And these are the men who reproach the friends of peace with being idealists!

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THE FUTURE OF THE DRAMA.

The theatrical outlook here and in England is so discouraging that the most ardent believers in the possibilities of the stage as an artistic, moral, and educational force, as well as a source of the best entertainment, might well despair of its future, if it were not for the occasional schemes suggested for its reform. These, as a rule, are far too vague and ill-considered to justify the expectation of practical results, but they reveal, at least, a growing feeling of contempt and disgust at the imbecility or indecency of most of the current exhibitions, and a desire for something better. Therefore they work together for good.

Most of the reformers clamor for a national or an endowed theatre of some sort to be run in accordance with their own peculiar theories. Several of them have been identified with experiments on this plan, which failed because they appealed only to a handful of enthusiasts. The plays may have been the best in the world—it is not necessary to discuss that point—but the public would have nothing to do with them. Plainly, a theatre conducted upon such lines, no matter how perfect the play or the performance, would be an absolutely futile establishment, as regards any permanent effect upon the general situation. Nor would a National Theatre, supposing that such a representative institution could be maintained in this country (which is exceedingly doubtful), be of much use, except as a show place for visitors, and a pleasant harbor of refuge for actors possessing the necessary political influence. Subsidized State or municipal theatres in all the principal cities might, under honest and capable direction—if that could be secured—help to create a demand for higher standards, but under present conditions the idea is too fantastic for serious consideration. As matters now stand, the subsidized theatres would be obliged either to enter into an alliance with the existing syndicates, or to declare war upon them. If they should adopt the first alternative, they would have no excuse for existence; if the second, they would soon be bankrupt. They might get plays, they would never get players. The syndicate managers know their business and control the actor market.

Is the case, then, hopeless? Is the theatre doomed to extinction, or to an inevitable degradation to the level of the music hall or the circus? Not by any means. But it cannot be restored to its pristine vigor or stimulated to higher development by any system of financial coddling or legislative enactment. Protection benefits art no more than it does trade, except under very rare and peculiar conditions, and then only for a season. What the theatre is suffering from to-day is the domination of the speculative and commercial managers, who, after building up a monopoly and practically putting an end to competition, have gone into the business of making reputations by advertisement, and substituting notoriety for merit as the standard of comparison in all matters connected with plays and players.

In this revolution they have been assisted to an incalculable extent by a careless, complacent, selfish, or unprincipled press. Probably it would not be much of an exaggeration to say that without this assistance the controlling syndicates could never have come into existence. Certainly they could not have attained so quickly such vast and mischievous power. This statement will not be disputed by any person conversant with the facts. It does not necessarily imply that there has been a great amount of direct bribery and corruption on the part of individuals. But any one interested in the question who will take the trouble to examine the files of newspapers published during the last decade or two, will be struck not only by the increase in the size of the theatrical advertisements, but by the much greater increase in the amount of space devoted, not to criticism, real or pretended, but to all manner of silly or scandalous gossip about players, most of which emanates from the various box-offices. This is one way, not to mention others, in which modern journalism has become the confederate of the speculative manager in his circus-like methods; and it may be taken as an axiom that one of the first essentials to theatrical reform upon a large scale is a determination on the part of the press to give to stage productions the same competent, conservative, and dignified consideration which it extends to other branches of art.

But reforms to be effectual must originate in the theatre itself, and, perhaps, the most alarming feature in the dramatic situation just now is the dearth not only of first-rate actors, but of second-rate. It is to this latter class that all our so-called stars belong, and even they have few visible successors. The same state of affairs prevails in England. A writer in a London weekly, referring to a series of performances in that city by a German stock company, dwells enthusiastically upon the extraordinary versatility displayed by every member of the organization, the constant appearance of the most noted players in subordinate parts, and the exquisitely truthful effect secured by this artistic cooperation. Such work would be impossible, he says, in England, except, perhaps, in one or two of the larger provincial theatres still possessing companies trained by the old stock system. He suggests that the excellence of the German companies may be due to the superiority of the middle-class education in that country, but it can be accounted for more simply by the continuous training in every variety of drama which the members received in the days of their apprenticeship. The standards of middle-class education in Italy are not remarkably high, but the Italian actors, as has been demonstrated in this city by the companies of Salvini, Ristori, and Duse, are as versatile as the Germans. The art of acting can be acquired only by long, laborious, and varied practice.

This can be provided only in stock companies. In them the novice is paid for his services, and therefore can serve a longer and more thorough course of apprenticeship than in a so-called school of acting in which he can learn nothing that he does not pay for. Without stock companies there will be no supply of good actors, and without them there can be no theatrical resurrection. There must be a reversion to first principles, and it may be nearer than superficial observers suspect. Our present managers, by their short-sighted policy, are killing the goose that has laid their golden eggs. They have filled their theatres and are building more, but they have stopped the production of actors and made play-writing either discreditable or hopeless. Sooner or later a financial crash is inevitable, and when it comes there will be a period of terrible trial for the profession. But that is what is needed. Nothing else will compel a revival of individual enterprise. To-day, the whole army of mummers are the placid slaves of a solvent oligarchy. Left to their own resources, they must combine or starve. But, with the dissolution of the Trusts, will come again the day of the really independent theatre. With the independent theatre will come the honest and honorable competition, in the face of that adversity which, throughout history, has been the rough but kindly foster-mother of art; and thus, and not otherwise, will the dramatist and the actor resume their Shaksperian function as the abstract and brief chronicles of the time.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT IN PORTO RICO.

February 9, 1903.

The appearance of a second annual report of a civil governor of Porto Rico under American sovereignty, and its utter failure to receive even the modicum of interest ordinarily accorded to an important Government document, emphasizes how completely that which was but recently an acute phase of national politics has become a neglected incident of national history. It is doubtful whether the position now occupied by Porto Rico in the consciousness of the American people is very different from what it was before the war with Spain. At any rate, if our acquaintance with and interest in the island and its people are greater now than then, they are of a quality to be described as potential rather than positive. We have given the island a workable instrument of government, we have sent there good men to

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administer its affairs, we have been generous in permitting free trade relations with the United States and in granting exemption from the burdens of Federal taxation, and we stand ready, when occasion requires—be it German naval soundings, a devastating hurricane, or the extradition of a defaulting insular official—to convert a protecting ægis into something more real and tangible. But, having done these things, we dismiss the island from our further concern, and we incline to estimate the efficiency of its administration by the completeness with which this course of inattention can be pursued. An academic attractiveness attaches to particular phases of insular experience, as the currency policy and the financial reorganization, and the public mind has a certain recurrent interest as to whether the net result of American sovereignty has been for good or for evil. But in the main we have cheerfully forgotten Porto Rico, and we ask for nothing better than to be allowed to continue to do so.

And yet the work of establishing civil government in Porto Rico was a notable performance; and when a future historian of modern colonial experience shall review the course of events from the introduction of civil government in May 1, 1900, to the establishment of the island upon a self-supporting basis and the introduction of free trade relations with the United States on July 25, 1901, he will accord a large measure of praise to the devotion and ability of the first civil governor, Charles H. Allen, and the remarkable group of men whom President McKinley associated with him. Within a period of fifteen months three extraordinary results were attained. The military rule under which the island had groaned for more than four hundred years was replaced by civil government. A perfected system of economic exploitation yielded to a modern equitable system of revenue. Finally, the old insular isolation was modified by favorable educational and economic influences. During the second year of civil government there has been healthy and encouraging progress along these several lines. Old difficulties have been solved and new problems have arisen, often of increasing difficulty and complexity. The paradox of civilization, that an improving standard of life and a dawning social consciousness bring impatient aspiration and discontent with status, is realized in Porto Rico to the utmost.

With the retirement of Gov. Allen the efficient insular secretary, Mr. William H. Hunt, succeeded to the executive office. Similarly, with the return to academic duties of Dr. Hollander and Dr. Brumbaugh after the completion of the respective services for which office had been accepted, viz., the introduction of a revenue system and the organization of an educational department, Mr. W. F. Willoughby was appointed treasurer and Dr. S. M. Lindsay commissioner of education. The vacancy in the office of insular secretary was filled by the appointment of Mr. Charles Hartzell. Better appointments could not have been made, and yet the occasion therefor brings to mind one of the gravest problems that will confront the United States in the administration of its dependencies. Up to the present time it has been the peculiar attractiveness of a constructive period, the urgent appeal to patriotic sentiment and the extraordinary public prominence of our insular policies, that have secured the services of remarkably capable men in the administration of our dependencies. But these are transient conditions. Triumphant democracy will not permit the adequate remuneration of an insular service, and, after concentrated public opinion no longer holds the appointing power to a strict accountability, there is serious danger of a gradual deterioration in the character of appointments in Porto Rico as elsewhere. It is in crystallizing a public sentiment which will tolerate no other course, that each succeeding appointment of the right quality is at this time of all others important.

During the second year of civil government the keynote of insular politics in Porto Rico has continued to be the sharp opposition of the two local parties. The Republicans have been in legislative power, and the Federals have continued to denounce the organic act and to criticise and obstruct the insular administration. Gov. Hunt thinks that latterly the Federal party has undergone a change of heart, and notes that many of its members are even advocating a change of name and an abandonment of policies of obstruction. A definite test of this reformation is now being afforded. The Federals, abandoning their previous policy of political non-participation, went to the polls last November, and are represented in the insular Legislature now in session by an efficient minority.

The economic improvement of the island, as indicated by statistics of exports and imports, has been remarkable. For the fiscal year ending July 1, 1902, the export of sugar to the United States was $5,890,087, of cigars and cigarettes $1,570,938, as compared with $4,695,104 and $296,901, respectively, in the preceding year. The revival of the prostrate coffee industry is indicated in an exportation to foreign countries of $3,168,662 in 1901-1902, as compared with $1,674,460 in 1900-1901. The tremendous differential involved in free trade relations with the United States is reflected in a growth of total importations from that country to $10,719,444, as compared with $2,429,004 from foreign countries. As credit relations and consumers' tastes readjust themselves, a further movement in this direction may be anticipated. The development of internal trade has also been marked. "Merchants report business as better and sales as increased."

The public finances of the island are in no less encouraging condition than its private economies. The Hollander Law has more than realized the high expectations entertained of it, and public opinion in Porto Rico would consent with great reluctance, if at all, to any modification of its essential provisions. The financial system instituted under it has been found to be, Gov. Hunt notes, "sound in principle and flexible in application." The available balance of insular revenues increased during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1902, from $74,631.41 to $314,600.40, showing, as Auditor Garrison records in a characteristically lucid report, that, for that period at least, "the insular taxes and revenues have been well and closely collected, and the expenditures kept within reasonable and moderate bounds." But eternal vigilance is the price of sound financiering, and in the sharp relative decline of the excess of receipts over expenditures for the first half of the current fiscal year—$64,079.56, as compared with an excess of $239,968.99 in the preceding fiscal year—is to be found a clear admonition that should not be neglected. The fiscal ideal in Porto Rico for some years to come should be a public expenditure which will entail neither increase in the existing burden of taxation nor premature resort to public credit. To the Latin-American mind, spending and borrowing are peculiarly agreeable processes, and increased taxation and funded indebtedness constitute an easy administrative descent.

In educational lines the work so successfully inaugurated by Dr. Brumbaugh has been continued under the capable management of his successor. On February 21, 1902, the last date at which accurate statistics are obtainable, there were in activity throughout the island 876 schools, in which were enrolled 41,642 pupils under the direction of 934 teachers. This indicates an increase of more than 80 per cent. over the number of schools in operation under the Spanish régime, to say nothing of improvement in quality. Commissioner Lindsay declares "the work done under the Spanish school system is scarcely worthy to be called a school." Governor Hunt explains further that it is true there was a teacher for each school, but he often hired a substitute, not because better fitted for the work in hand, but that the tedium of mental exertion might be shifted from himself to another; or he sometimes appointed one of his older and brighter pupils to conduct the exercises, pretending to keep a general direction over the one or the other, although absent at times from the district for extended periods.

There has been marked progress in the other great reform connected with American sovereignty, namely, road construction. Under American control, 87½ miles of road have been completed. That is to say, within four years we have completed more than half as many miles of road as the Spaniards did in nearly four hundred years. This activity has been possible by reason of the $2,000,000 "customs refund" made by Congress for the benefit of Porto Rico, and reserved for permanent improvements of this kind. Governor Hunt expresses the hope that within three years the island will have a complete system of principal highways, and that thereafter, with better municipal conditions, local or municipal roads can be built which will be short and comparatively inexpensive.

It is interesting to note that Porto Rico affords an object-lesson of governmental ownership of a telegraph system, the insular Government having taken over the lines from the War Department in February, 1901. Commissioner Elliott gives an encouraging report as to its development. The number of offices for the transaction of business increased from ten on February 1, 1901, to thirty-two on July 1, 1902. Receipts have increased by an average of $2,101.67 per month between January and May, 1902, as against an average of $1,-895.03 for the same period in the year previous. It has been, and will probably remain, the policy of the insular Government to operate the system with a view to developing internal communication within the island rather than to make it immediately self-supporting and ultimately revenue-producing; but it is thought that, during the coming year, despite a further increase

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in the number of offices, if allowance be made for the cost of public messages the operation of the system will entail no drain upon the insular Treasury.

The serious deficiency of political organization in Porto Rico still remains—the inefficiency of its local governments. The system which Spain established was designed to serve the political convenience of the central Government rather than to secure efficient service for the local bodies. American sovereignty, in neither its military nor early civil periods, introduced the radical reorganization that the situation demanded. In consequence, from this source proceed the largest number of difficulties that now confront the insular government. Some radical measures have been taken, as in the reduction of the grotesquely large number of municipal districts and in the central inspection of local finances; but, on the other hand, there has been what can be hardly considered as other than a premature resort to local borrowing, and an increasing aversion to any radical change from the essential features of the system now in vogue.

REBELL'S BALZAC, STENDHAL, AND MÉRIMÉE.—II.

PARIS, January 29, 1903.

In his 'Lettres à une Inconnue,' Mérimée writes: "Believe that you will never know either all the good or all the evil there is in me. I have spent my life in being praised for qualities which I have not, and in being calumniated for defects which are not mine." It is quite true that Mérimée remained a sort of problem even to his best friends. That he had real friends, who remained attached to him to the last, shows that he must have had some sterling qualities; but even to those friends something always remained hidden. He bragged of vices which he did not possess. He liked mystery, as is proved by his relations with the "Inconnue." He had a very broad mind; he liked the world, but hated its conventions and its limitations. He had a curiosity which was never quite satisfied and was always looking for new sensations.

The chapters which M. Hugues Rebell devotes to him and which form the second half of his volume on 'The Inspirers of Balzac, Stendhal, and Mérimée,' are interesting, as they show a relation between Mérimée's literary work and the incidents of his life. The grandfather of Mérimée was a lawyer of Normandy, and became the *intendant* of the Marshal de Broglie; his father was a painter and an art critic. His mother was a clever lady, imbued with the philosophical ideas of the eighteenth century. It was in her salon that young Mérimée made the acquaintance of Viollet-le-Duc, the architect, of Ampère, the writer, of Fauriel, of Henry Beyle, so well known later under the name of Stendhal. He was first taken as secretary by the Count d'Argout, and became during four years his *chef de cabinet*, when the Count d'Argout was successively Minister of the Navy, of Commerce and of the Interior. At the age of twenty-eight he had published already the 'Théâtre de Clara Gazul,' the 'Guzla,' the 'Jacquerie,' the 'Famille Carvajal,' the 'Chronique du Temps de Charles IX.' He saw the best society of his time, and his critical faculty found in it perpetual subjects of observation. His mind had an ironical turn, which was shown only in his correspondence. See, for instance, what he wrote to a friend about Madame Récamier:

"When her eyes had lost some of their beauty, she began to try conversation. Her method was so simple that it will appear coarse to you, but such methods are the best. She told you with a hushed voice, and for yourself alone, that you were the most extraordinary man of the century. Her manner of speaking was calculated. The first words of each phrase were pronounced with extraordinary vivacity, and seemed a sort of avowal forced by enthusiasm. The end of the phrase was spoken very slowly, and with a sort of shamefacedness which produced even greater effect upon the hearer's vanity."

Mérimée made the acquaintance of Madame Sand at the time when her famous quarrel with Alfred de Musset was making the greatest noise. His curiosity did not blind him. When he saw her, in men's clothes, such as she wore at the time, he was somewhat discouraged; he became even more so when she tried on him, ironical and skeptical as he was, her burning romantic phrases, speaking of Musset in such terms as these: "What have I done to the angels of heaven that they should inflict on me a lioness's love? In vain did Alfred get angry; he was but a lamb. . . . Alas! I lied to him, but say yourself if there exists a woman more sincere than I am at present." And she finally told Mérimée: "Passion is a severe gift, but it is divine. Prosper, you will see that my soul is not corrupt." Prosper did not wish to prolong his acquaintance with such a gushing person, especially as, with the exception of her fine, eloquent eyes, she had no womanly charms. When an allusion was afterwards made to Mérimée, Madame Sand said: "Don't speak to me of that man! He is a monster." Mérimée met Musset every week at a dinner which was given at the Palais Royal, at the Café de la Rotonde. The ordinary guests were Eugène Delacroix, the painter; Count Horace de Vieil-Castel; an English lawyer, Sutton Sharpe; Baron de Mareste, Stendhal, and his doctor, Koseff. Vieil-Castel gives curious details regarding these dinners in his memoirs, which are not easy to find.

It was in 1830, during a journey in Spain, that Mérimée made the acquaintance of Madame de Montijo, mother of the future Empress Eugénie. She was of Scotch origin, but had become thoroughly Spanish. She was very intimate with Marshal Narvaez; it was at her instigation that Mérimée composed his historical essay, 'Don Pèdre,' and wrote 'Carmen' (the subject of which has in our day inspired a musical composer). In 1830, the Countess of Montijo, who had become a widow, established herself in Paris with her two daughters, Paca and Eugenia (the latter born in Granada during an earthquake). Mérimée lived in intimacy with the family, spoiled the children, instructed them also. A letter written by him to Stendhal shows what was the exact nature of his relations with Madame de Montijo:

"I will take you on my return to an excellent woman of this country [Spain], who will please you by her wit and her simplicity. She is an admirable friend, but there has never been a question of anything but friendship between us. She is a very complete and very beautiful type of the Andalusian woman. She is the Countess of Montijo, formerly called Countess of Teba, of whom I have often spoken to you."

When Narvaez came back to power, the Countess of Montijo returned to Spain with her two children. It was after her departure that Mérimée met at the Count d'Argout's a very charming and cultivated person, Madame Cécile D——. She was married to the banker Gabriel D——, and was the daughter of the Count de L——. She became the inspirer of Mérimée, and he dedicated to her the book which may be considered as his masterpiece, 'Colomba,' a most original and dramatic account of Corsican manners, as well as the 'Vase Étrusque' and 'La Vénus d'Ille.' He entered the French Academy during the period of this new intimacy, which lasted no less than fifteen years and was suddenly interrupted by incidents which might as well have been left unrelated by M. Rebell. Mérimée had better also not have written what follows:

"Imagine the face you make when, after having admired for long years what you thought was a diamond, you discover that it was a mere piece of glass. . . . The result is, that I must lop from my life fifteen years, which not only are lost, but of which the memory is poison to me. I do not regret the time lost, but there are memories which were a superhuman world to me, a world to which I had access and which is now shut to me."

It seems as if the creative genius of Mérimée became exhausted during the years which he gave to a person, of brilliant wit and intellect, who inspired him with the only violent passion he ever felt in his life. His literary work came to an end: during the eighteen years which followed, he published only 'Lokis' and the 'Cosaques d'Autrefois'; as for the rest, there were only "articles and studies of a remarkably intelligent man, but you can no longer find in his writings the divine flame." He himself wrote:

"I am asked to do a lot of tiresome things which I dare not refuse. A friend wants a *tartine* for a book; a minister wants a memoir on the *Bibliothèque*. So I spend my time in doing useless things, but my great reason for not refusing point blank to do them is that I should otherwise do nothing at all. When I had an object, it was very different. I had then a great desire to please, and I worked hard to do so. Now, if I found at my feet the finest diamonds in the world, I would not stoop to pick them up, as I have nobody to whom I could offer them."

Mérimée held the post of Inspector of Historical Monuments. What would have been for many a sinecure, became to him an interesting occupation, and an occasion to show the great delicacy of his artistic sense. The reports which he made on his journeys from place to place in various parts of France are extremely valuable; they have become rare, as only a few copies were printed at the time, but they are much valued by bibliophiles as well as by architects. In his latter years, Mérimée found some interest in a correspondence with a Mademoiselle Jenny Dacquin, a governess of Boulogne, who amused herself by sending him a criticism of his 'Chronique de Charles IX.' Mérimée answered her, and many letters were exchanged before he saw his correspondent in London. Mademoiselle Dacquin became a friend of his, and nothing more. M. Rebell seems, however, to think that the limits of friendship and of a warmer sentiment become very uncertain; but I

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believe that he is nearer the truth when he says that Mademoiselle Dacquin never was really more than an innocent *remplaçante* of what he had lost. Their correspondence is too ironical in many parts, too maternal and paternal in others, and too sensible generally to suggest the idea of a violent passion.

Mérimée had always kept up his correspondence with Madame de Montijo. The girl whom he had seen so familiarly in his youth had become Empress of the French; she offered him the post of private secretary, but he refused it, and was named Senator. "They say," writes Mérimée to the Countess of Montijo, "that the Empress kissed her husband with effusion when he reported to her what he had done. This little detail, I assure you, gives me more pleasure than the thing itself, to which I am not yet perfectly reconciled." Mérimée never took any part in politics. He gave many notes to Napoleon III. when the Emperor had the fancy to write his 'Life of Cæsar.' He was an intimate guest of the sovereign, but discussed with him only historical questions. He was at heart a skeptic in political matters; he had no belief in formulas. He knew many men and many countries, and what was good for England did not always seem to him good for France, Italy, or Spain.

His end was painful. He became very ill in the latter days of the Empire, and the war of 1870, which he had long foreseen, was a terrible blow to him. After the first defeat, he lost all hope; on the 21st of August, he wrote to his old friend Panizzi: "*Finis Galliæ.* We have brave soldiers, but no general. I see nothing but folly around me. The Chambers, which are to meet, will do nothing but help the Prussians. I expect in a week to hear the proclamation of the Republic, and in a fortnight to see the Prussians. I assure you that I envy those who have just been killed near the Rhine." After Sedan, he was a witness of the Revolution of the 4th of September; he left Paris for Cannes, where he died on the 24th of September.

Correspondence.

THE AMBUSHING OF BRADDOCK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noting in your issue of February 5 (p. 117, col. 3, lines 2-5) the sentence, "Occasionally there is a slip, as where the old charge that Braddock 'walked into an ambush' is given another lease of life," may I ask if this correction rests on new contemporary accounts discovered within the last fifteen years, or a fresh analysis of the old? The current view was accepted without question, after a reëxamination of the accessible evidence, both by Parkman ('Montcalm and Wolfe') and by Winsor ('Narrative and Critical History,' v., 497-8, where he repeats the word "ambush" twice); and I confess to being among the darkened with them, but more than glad to learn new truth on any subject. I am sure many other readers must be equally glad of information.

Very respectfully, F. M.

February 8, 1903.

[Parkman's words are: "Braddock has been charged with marching blindly into an ambuscade; but it was not so. There was no ambuscade; and had there been one, he would have found it. It is true that he did not reconnoitre the woods very far in advance of the head of the column; yet, with this exception, he made elaborate dispositions to prevent surprise" (*Montcalm and Wolfe*, i., 214). Winsor's only reference is as follows: "They [the French] knew from scouts that Braddock was approaching, and Beaujeu was sent out with over 600 Indians and 300 French, to ambush the adventurous Briton" (*Narr. and Crit. History*, v., 497). Winsor's account is very brief as compared with Parkman's, but gives no other support than as above to the ambush theory.—Ed. Nation.]

WILSON'S HISTORY AND ITS ILLUSTRATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust you will do me the honor to present this letter to the writer of the review of President Wilson's 'History of the American People,' in your issue of the 5th inst. (p. 117). It is evident that he has misunderstood my connection with the illustrations of the work, and, to an unwary reader, it might appear that the inclusion of "fancy pictures" and the use of the inscription "from an old print" should be charged to my account. This is in no wise the case. I had almost nothing to do with the selection of the illustrations, but prepared the full "Notes to the Illustrations" of Volume I., and about eighty full notes in Volume II.—nothing more.

Yours very sincerely,

Victor H. Paltsits.

Lenox Library Building, New York, February 6, 1903.

[Volume i., p. xxvi., contains this note: "For the verification of the documents and the illustrative material here, and for the notes on their sources, we are indebted to Mr. Victor H. Paltsits, . . . whose scholarly researches made possible so full a list." The language is not very clear, but was taken to mean that Mr. Paltsits had a share in the selection of the illustrations, besides being responsible for the annotations. We regret that any injustice should unintentionally have been done him.—Ed. Nation.]

CARLYLE'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the admirable review of Fletcher's recent edition of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' in the last number of the *Nation*, following as it does so closely upon a notice of the new Macmillan edition of FitzGerald's Writings, in the same number, it may not be amiss to cite the following, from FitzGerald's letter to Allen of July 25, 1840:

"I hear Spedding has written a Review of Carlyle's Revolution in the *Edinburgh*. I don't know a book more certain to evaporate away from posterity than that, except it be supported by his other works. Parts may perhaps be found two hundred years hence and translated into Erse by some inverted Macpherson."

Few literary prophecies can show more complete justification than this, sixty odd years after utterance.

Alfred L. Ripley.

Andover, Mass., February 14, 1903.

Notes.

The one-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Emerson will be celebrated by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. with a centenary edition of his Complete Works, printed from new Caslon type, with an introduction by Edward Waldo Emerson, and notes (an innovation for Emerson's publications) from the same hand. Two volumes, possibly, may be filled with unpublished material from the Emerson papers; but these will follow the reprint at a date later than May 25. There will also be a parallel autograph centenary edition, limited and numbered, and each set will contain an original sheet of Emerson's manuscript.

Baker & Taylor Co. announce "The Story of the Churches," brief volumes designed to answer the general question, "What is a Baptist?" etc.; 'Leavening the Nation: The Story of American Home Missions,' by Dr. Joseph B. Clark; 'God and Music,' by the Rev. John Harrington Edwards; 'Social Ethics,' by Prof. J. M. Coleman; and 'Reciprocity,' by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin and H. Parker Willis.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce the early publication of 'The Principles of Money,' by Prof. J. L. Laughlin.

'Variations in Animals and Plants,' by Dr. H. M. Vernon, of Oxford, will be published this month by Henry Holt & Co.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will shortly issue 'The Real Benedict Arnold,' by Charles Burr Todd, author of 'The Real Aaron Burr.'

A very becoming Memorial of the late Archbishop Corrigan, of simple elegance in bookish attire, and free from extravagance in the biographical sketch contributed by Dr. J. A. Mooney, has been brought out by the Cathedral Library Association in this city. It comprises further an account of the obsequies, Bishop McQuaid's sermon, and the varied testimonials of the Catholic laity and the press. The impression of sweetness and integrity made by all these documents is confirmed by the numerous portraits of the lamented prelate.

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s 'New International Encyclopædia' has now advanced with its sixth volume to "Ether." In these later volumes there is undoubtedly at many points a marked improvement over those which we reviewed some time ago. This holds especially of the sub-editing and proof-reading. Though not yet immaculate in these regards, the Encyclopædia is no longer so irritating to read or such a trap for the unwary. But, with all this, much remains to be done in other directions. The illustrations are still beautiful but inefficient; the bibliographies, though better, could be greatly improved, and the assignment of space is still eccentric. The department of biography remains perhaps the poorest, unless that preëminence be disputed by the writer on characters in literature; the crudity of these is unabated. Yet it is clear that the editors must have taken

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the condition of the first volumes to heart and labored at their task. In volume six the fates, too, have been good to them. An encyclopædia with such articles as it includes on Egypt and England—especially an admirable sketch of English literature—cannot be finally sneered at. Also, on natural science and art it now plainly can be consulted with general safety.

In 'Twenty-six Historic Ships' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), Mr. Frederic S. Hill, who served with distinction as volunteer lieutenant in the navy during the civil war, has given the stories of certain American men-of-war, from the *Alfred* in 1776, with John Paul Jones as her first lieutenant, to the *Oregon* in 1898. The ship's name, in each case, serves as the thread upon which are strung accounts of naval actions, histories of successive ships bearing the same name, sketches of eminent naval commanders, reflections on naval policy—anything, in short, which seemed to the writer germane to the subject under the most elastic interpretation. The book is excellently got up; the author's style is simple and pleasing; the stories themselves of perennial interest. It is in telling of the actions during the civil war that Mr. Hill is at his best, for he was a participant in several of them. Careless proof-reading is, presumably, responsible for a number of curious statements; among them, that the *Louisiana's* "bottom was twenty-two inches thick before plating with 500 tons of three-inch railroad iron." The last picture, "Naval Heroes of Santiago," by the way, is misleading, since portraits of Higginson and Chadwick, who were not in the famous battle, are given, and those of Taylor and Cook, who were in it, are omitted.

So charming a series of Egyptian pictures as Mr. R. T. Kelly has given in his 'Egypt Painted and Described' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), we have never seen before. At every point, except the process reproduction, which will not stand close inspection, they are utterly delightful. With the seventy-five, all phases of the country are covered—Cairo scenes in glows of color and costume; Nile scenes in exquisite atmosphere effects; at the cataracts and among the temples; by the pyramids; in the desert; among the fellahin in the Delta; on the sea front at Damietta. Through the land for years Mr. Kelly went, an artist at large, and gathered in the rich harvest here suggested. The people, too, he learned to know as well as the country, and, in consequence, has picked up wonderful bits of defiant realism which the ordinary Orientalist will find hard to assimilate. What, for example, are we to make of a Moslem district where the portrait of the Sheykh, just painted, is carried in triumph and hung in the mosque? The idea makes the canonist's hair stand up, but such things, evidently, can happen. And the book is full of similar scraps of strangeness. Mr. Kelly, apparently, found nothing theologically unseemly in this picture episode, and, in another place, he tells us that something is forbidden in the Koran of which the Koran never dreamed. His mind, therefore, was absolutely clear for impressions; they came to him richly, and he has booked them picturesquely and faithfully here. Yet, in curious contrast to his keenness of eye and general alertness, is a phenomenal carelessness for the representation of language. Arabic he evidently picked up colloquially and from all classes—donkey boys to desert Sheykhs—and it, as given in this book, is Arabic of the most weird, broken to unintelligibility. But that only adds another touch to the fresh realism, and a book so absolutely fresh as this on an almost threadbare subject seldom appears. Mr. Kelly must give us some more pictures and details of the *vie intime* of the Egyptians; the more *intime* the better.

The two large volumes of 'Parliament, Past and Present,' by Arnold Wright and Philip Smith (London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: Dutton), are history of an eminently popular sort, liberally provided with anecdote and adorned by some three hundred illustrations, some colored. The pictorial record would be far more valuable if the source of the various portraits and views were always given. It is a work that will entertain for occasional reading any one interested in parliamentary history, if it does not add to his enlightenment; and for general readers whose instinct warns them against special treatises, it will be a mine of reasonably accurate information about the buildings Parliament has occupied, about the procedure of legislation and state trials, and concerning famous party whips, premiers, speakers, and debaters. All this is sufficiently diluted to serve as the daily food of political human nature of the amateur sort, and with this understanding the book may safely be commended.

Nearly twenty years ago M. Paul Bourget spent a few weeks in Oxford, and expressed some of his reveries and meditations in a publication which tells us scarcely less about M. Bourget than about the university city. A translation of 'Some Impressions of Oxford' has just appeared (London: Howard Wilford Bell), illustrated by fourteen delightful drawings by E. H. New. The chief value of the book is in these pictures. The translation is not well done. The annual subscription to the Union Society, for instance, is not a "rate" (p. 45), and the reading-rooms of that club are not used for different kinds of "lectures," in the English sense of that word.

The same publisher has issued a very much better piece of work in the form of a reprint of a paper on "University Magazines and their Makers," read by H. C. Marillier before the "Sette of Odd Volumes." It is an admirable sketch of the history of college journalism—mainly consisting of lighter verse—at Oxford and Cambridge, with sufficient quotations to whet one's appetite for a study of the "sources." Among the best-known names connected with this history are those of Thackeray (the author of a skit on Tennyson's prize-poem "Timbuctoo"), C. S. Calverley, William Morris, Sir George Trevelyan, H. R. Haweis, and, in more recent times, J. K. Stephen, A. D. Godley, A. T. Quiller-Couch, Owen Seaman, G. W. Steevens, and Barry Pain. It appears that English college wits are generally most successful in parody, of which form of literary art several brilliant instances are given in this little volume. It is a pity that Mr. Godley's delightful verses on the Rhodes scholarships came too late for inclusion. The book contains as an appendix a complete chronological list of college publications, with the names of their chief contributors.

A lecture on 'The Rise of the Experimental Method in Oxford,' by Prof. Clifford Allbutt, M.D., F.R.S. (Henry Frowde), is Oxfordy in the bad way—wordy, perfunctory, confused in the extreme, presenting nothing new in matter or form, often inaccurate, and, where right, relying on inferior authorities.

A booklet of ninety-seven pages, translated from an article in an Italian periodical, but which should not be confounded with the official Report of the Italian *Polar Star* expedition shortly to appear, has been published by Howard Wilford Bell (London). It has the not altogether happy title, invented by the English publisher, of 'Farther North than Nansen,' and is illustrated by a few rather inferior half-tones. It forms a preliminary announcement of the chief events and discoveries of the expedition of which the revised, amplified, and fully illustrated account will appear in the Report. The translation, while not idiomatic, is sufficiently accurate, and the tone of the narrative admirably modest. The expedition wintered at Teplitz Bay, where the vessel had a narrow escape from being crushed in the ice, and the party were obliged to set up tents on the shore, in which they spent the winter. In February, an attempt was made at a sledge journey northward, which proved abortive. On the 11th of March, a second party set out with the intention of sending back detachments at intervals, leaving four men under Commander Cagni for the last supreme effort northward. The difficulties proved great, as usual in attempts to traverse the pack-ice. The first detachment, composed of Lieut. Querini and two men, left the advance March 20, but nothing has ever been heard of them since, and they doubtless perished. Cardenti, with the second detachment, reached the camp in safety April 18. Cagni pressed on with great courage and energy, and on the 25th of April reached latitude 86° 33′ 49″ in about east longitude 64° 30′. After severe struggles, he and his men reached Teplitz Bay, June 23. The *Polar Star* was laboriously freed from the ice, and reached Hammerfest on the 5th of September. The geographical results of the expedition were chiefly the determination of the mythical character of some of the supposed islands north of the Franz Josef group, and the correction in detail of the existing charts. The enumeration of the scientific observations must be deferred until the publication of the final Report.

'Precious Stones: A Book of Reference for Jewellers,' by W. R. Cattelle (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), is designed to give all the necessary information about gems. There are chapters treating in an elementary manner the general physical properties (specific gravity, cleavage, hardness, etc.), the desirable qualities, methods of cutting, prices, modes of discrimination, history of celebrated stones, etc., with special descriptive chapters for the principal gems. The book, which is illustrated with ten plates, abounds in practical hints, and should be useful both to jewellers and to the general reader.

Prof. Henry A. Miers of Oxford, in 'Mineralogy: An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Minerals' (Macmillan), has produced a thorough text-book of the essential characters of minerals, omitting any extended mention of their mode of occur-

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rence, geological distribution, origin, alteration, etc., which the author prefers to treat separately. Part I. includes the geometric properties (Crystallography), optical and physical properties (Crystal Physics), with specific chapters on the practical measurement and optical determination of crystals, and others on the general physical and chemical properties, the relations between these and the methods of description and determination. Part II. describes the more important mineral species in detail, with brief mention of well-known occurrences. Tables of the principal properties are added. The typography is excellent, and the figures of crystals sharp and clear. An unusual feature is the employment, in the descriptive portion, of shaded drawings of mineral specimens and groups which are wonderfully effective.

On June 1 will issue from the University of Chicago Press the first number of *Modern Philology*, "a quarterly journal devoted to research in the modern languages and literatures." It will appear regularly, and make a volume of about 600 pages, under the editorial conduct of Philip Schuyler Allen (manager), Frederic Ives Carpenter (English), Camillo von Klenze (German), and Thomas Atkinson Jenkins (Romance). An advisory board includes Professors Kittredge, Bright, Thomas, von Jagemann, Warren, Matzke, Hempl, and Gummere. The coöperation of all scholars in America and Europe is solicited.

Practically the entire double number, 1 and 2, of the *Zeitschrift* of the German Palestine Society (vol. xxv.) is devoted to a discussion of the climatology and meteorology of the Holy Land from the pen of Dr. H. Hilderscheid. The article, besides furnishing complete data collected for decades, not only in Jerusalem, but in other parts of the country, is also historical, and discusses fully the information to be gained from the Scriptures and the Talmud. It is accompanied by four excellent charts and one meteorological map. Of timely interest are the concluding sections, in which the author discusses the old problem as to material climatic changes in Palestine, and reaches the conclusion that there is no evidence to this effect; least of all, proofs that there ever has been a general destruction of forests which changed Palestine from a land flowing with milk and honey, supporting some six millions in the time of David and Solomon, to a comparatively dreary waste that now can scarcely sustain half a million. The best historic data go to show that there never was an abundance of forests in Palestine. Hilderscheid, accordingly, agrees with Conder and others in holding that political causes alone have produced the present deplorable conditions, and points to the success of the German Temple Society colonies as proof that the projects of the Zionists to reëstablish the Jewish nationality on the historic soil of the fathers is not a visionary dream, so far as the capacity of the country again to support a large population is concerned.

For the first time in the history of German universities a common agreement has been reached in the various states of the Empire regulating promotion to the degree of doctor of philosophy. Hitherto each school has done in this matter what seemed good in its own eyes. The Prussian Cultus Minister has now published an agreement according to which, beginning with the new academic year, the minimum requirements shall be that the candidate must be the graduate of a nine-years' secondary school, and must have been in attendance at the university for three years. Promotion is permitted only on the basis of a printed dissertation, supplemented by an oral examination. Exceptions to these rules are to be discouraged, and granted only if the authorities are satisfied with the preparation of the applicant. Only the following four grades will appear on the diplomas, viz., "rite," "cum laude," "magna cum laude," and "summa cum laude."

The "census" of Japan, heretofore taken annually from 1872 to 1900, has been rather in the nature of an enumeration. The publication of the rough results with the Résumé Statistique, annually issued since 1886, has heretofore sufficed the purpose of the Government. No enumeration has been published since 1900, and this probably because it has been recently decreed that, hereafter, a census on modern principles and with scientific thoroughness is to be taken every five years. Meanwhile the Imperial Cabinet has issued a printed document of folio size (pp. 400) in French text, with Chinese and Arabic numerals, showing the movement of the population for 1899. The statistics of birth, marriage, and divorce are elaborately tabulated, showing, for example, not only the sex of the stillborn and the normally born, but also the details, by sex and age, of the Japanese at home in the various cities, districts, and villages, and even in some foreign countries. The data in regard to marriage and divorce are very full as to sex, age, and cause. Other tables concern naturalization, loss of nationality, prolonged absence, foundlings, and some minor details.

On every New Year's Day, the daily newspapers in the large cities of Japan vie with each other not only in the bulk of their issues, comprising between ten and fifty-two pages of printed matter, but also in reproductions in color of pictures by famous artists, artistic designs, or original drawings, some of which are exquisite works of art. This year, in addition to its usual chromograph, the *Nichi-nichi Shimbun* issues a map of Tokio, covering six square feet, which most accurately represents the new features of the modern city. The boundaries of the Fu, or municipality proper, and of the various wards, the Shiro or castle enclosure, the business and residence portions, Government reservations, Buddhist and Shinto temples, Christian churches, barracks, parks, parade grounds, school property, etc., are clearly delineated. The course of the great railways entering from the south, north, and east, and of the tram or horse-cars, canals and water courses, the hills and rising ground, ponds, the great reclamations of land in the shallow bay at the mouth of the Sumida River, both proposed and accomplished, are also shown, together with the half-dozen insular curiosities out in the bay opposite Shinagawa —forts hastily thrown up at the time of Perry's visit in 1853. The execution and accuracy of the map are alike creditable, and its publication is a boon, since perhaps nothing of the sort has been issued since the publication, in 1874, by one of the American professors in the Imperial University, of the "Map of Tokio, with Notes Historical and Explanatory." It is almost startling to compare the modern and true national capital with that of Yedo, the great camp of wooden tents of a feudal suzerain, with his vassals, and the headquarters of an ecclesiastical oligarchy, exhibiting a curious union of State and Church. The maps of forty years ago show that about one-fourth of the total area was occupied by the feudal caravansaries, and fully another fourth was held as temple property, chiefly for the benefit of the priests and monks. This real estate represented the accumulation of centuries, during which Buddhism basked in the patronage of the Tokugawas. Nearly all this Buddhist property, excepting areas actually required for the sacred edifices, long since sequestrated by the Government, has served for educational and other public purposes. The map tells eloquently a grand story of progress.

—To reach the present point of progress of the new series of the Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A., the old series required but six volumes, whereas the volume Hernia-Inquiry, lately issued from the Government Printing Office, is numbered seven. Some idea of the reasons for this can be got from a comparison in the case of a relatively recent topic. Hypnotism in 1885 demanded but two and a half pages; now twenty-five are needed to keep up with the literature of the subject. With Immunity the growth in the same period is from a dozen lines to ten pages. But the same holds good even of the older bibliography; Hippocrates, for example, filling eighteen pages now as against ten formerly. Steadily goes forward the great task of making this library historically complete and unrivalled by the purchase of the earliest editions of medical writers. We will cite but one, Hock der Brackenau's 'Mentagra,' a tractate "de cura morbi Gallici (vulgo malafrancosz)," as the Strassburg edition of 1514 expresses it, "sive, ut Galli dicunt, Neapolitani," as the Lyons edition of 1529 insinuates—each country shifting upon another the odium of the disease. Hernia has 75 out of the 1,000 pages of this volume, and other voluminous rubrics are Hydrotherapy 15, Hydrophobia 25, Influenza 39, Infants 64, Hospitals 128, and Hygiene (by countries) 164. Homœopathy has 38 pages, against 25 in the old series, yet the difference seems, at a hasty glance, due rather to the acquisition of oldish books on the subject than to an expansion of the doctrine and the practice. However, we observe a third edition of 'L'Omopatia' in Naples in 1895. One may expect to find anything in this collection, from a report on kitchens to the House of Commons, to a Zoo in which the Hippopotamus furnishes one item, Hogs 5 pages, and Horses 14, while there is a Russian report of the commission on disinfecting cattle-plague hides. A discussion of early imprints is to be found in the note to Hugo Senensis's 'Expositio,' on page 460.

—Heilprin's 'Mont Pelée and the Tragedy of Martinique' (Lippincott) is the most thorough account of the Antillean eruptions of last year that has yet appeared. It is the work of a trained scientific observer who visited Martinique twice, and who, on his second excursion, was a close witness of some of the later violent eruptions of Pelée. The book is indeed one of the best descriptions that we possess of an active

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episode in the long life of a volcano, and is freely illustrated. The most remarkable feature of the May eruption was without doubt the singularly narrow limitation of the volcanic blast of burning-hot gases by the valley that directed them toward St. Pierre, where 30,000 persons were burned to death within five minutes. The subsequent destruction of Morne Rouge in August is fully described from notes made by Professor Heilprin at the time. On the afternoon of August 29, the diameter of the eruptive column of dust and bomb-laden steam was estimated at 1500 feet as it rose over the crest of the crater; its velocity of ascent at from one and a half to two miles a minute. Its summit was lost in the great leaden umbrella cloud that overspread the sky. Bombs af lava fell near the author and his companion; one hardly smaller than a flour barrel landed within ten feet of them, spattering them with mud from head to foot. It was on the night following this close contact with the volcano that a burning hot blast, similar to the one that had destroyed St. Pierre, but now turned in another direction, devastated Morne Rouge and Ajoupa-Bouillon: houses were laid flat on the ground, trees were overturned, boards were penetrated by other boards that had been shot through them. The people were fearfully burned, and the few survivors were suffering terribly when Professor Heilprin visited the ruins of the villages the next morning. Readers of this interesting book will unite in congratulating its author on his fortunate escape from the fury of Pelée.

—Kennan's 'Tragedy of Pelée' (Outlook Co.) is a vivid personal narrative by a trained although unscientific observer. It is for the most part a straightforward account of what was seen around the volcano, or of what was learned from those who had been present at the eruption; it is entertaining in a high degree, except for certain too realistic descriptions of decaying human bodies in the ruins about St. Pierre. Several of the plates give excellent illustration of the barren ash-covered slopes of the volcano, and of the new ravines worn in ashes by the torrential rains. It seems to be well proved that the destruction of St. Pierre was not caused by flaming gases, as stated in some of the earlier accounts, but mainly by superheated steam rushing down from the mountain with overwhelming velocity. A good account is given in chapter viii. of some explosions in the valley of Rivière Blanche, when streams of water from higher up the mountain made their way down into masses of hot ashes; explosions of this kind being among the most notable secondary features of the volcano's activity.

—Of books about New York there promises in time to be a surfeit. Among the latest, the Burrows Brothers Company (Cleveland) publish Charles Wolley's 'A Two Years' Journal in New York, and Part of its Territories in America'—a reprint from the original edition of 1701, limited to 250 copies. Prof. Edward Gaylord Bourne furnishes an introduction and notes. Very little is known of the author of this brochure, but the description of the New York of 1678-80 must have been very entertaining in its time—and, indeed, is so still—from its quaint style. At this period New York was a little trading town of 3,500 people, with a commercial marine of about 1,500 tons. Trade was fostered by protection, slavery, and the practice of cheating the Indians out of their property after they had been made drunk—not an agreeable community, according to our notions. Probably the only tolerable life was among those who, like Mr. Wolley, were sent out by England to help govern it, and the higher class of merchants. Later on, as appears in the pages of 'New York: Old and New; Its Story, Streets, and Landmarks,' by Rufus Rockwell Wilson (Philadelphia: Lippincott), the practice of burning negroes at the stake was not unknown, and trade and commerce were further fostered by piracy. It is not our fault if the early annals of New York seem mainly what they seemed to Diedrich Knickerbocker—a fit subject for satire, and otherwise not an important chapter in the history of the New World. According to Mr. Wilson's "foreword," the object of his book is to bring the subject "within the reach of the busy reader of slender purse." The first of his two volumes is historical, the second descriptive; but the work is not very well written, and there is too much of it for a handbook. There are a good many illustrations.

—There is much more that is valuable in 'Social New York under the Georges, 1714-1776,' by Esther Singleton (D. Appleton & Co.). This makes us acquainted, in considerable detail, with the "Houses, Streets, and Country Homes, . . . Fashions, Furniture, China, Plate, and Manners" of the period. Of course, New York under the Georges was half-English and half-Dutch—Dutch customs lingering on down to our own time; but the American city was beginning. The author's object is to show how the prosperous class lived—"the opulent and fashionable life that revolved around Fort George." By this time luxury had made considerable progress; and this volume, with its innumerable illustrations, gives a very good view of what the author wishes to show us. The materials have been gathered from many sources—old letters and diaries, wills and inventories, newspapers, "the publications of Messrs. Zenger, Gaine, Holt, Parker, and Rivington." The volume is a provincial museum, not to be neglected by any one who cares for history, for art, or the immediate past out of which he has sprung and part of which still inheres in him. Of 'New York Sketches' (illustrated), by Jesse Lynch Williams, published by Charles Scribner's Sons, we cannot say that either text or pictures are thoroughly satisfactory. The water front, High Bridge, and Brooklyn Bridge, for instance, are not by any means brought out in full perfection, to say nothing of the Park, certain street intersections emphasized by those unique structures, the elevated stations, etc. This is rather a prettified New York. Our own "New New York" is more impressive—picturesque at one point, grotesque at another, "stagey" at a third. "'S giebt nur a' New York."

—At a first glance Mrs. M. Sturge Henderson's 'Three Centuries in North Oxfordshire' (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell; London: Edward Arnold) might seem to be of merely local interest, but a careful reading shows it to be of considerable value to students of the history of English social life in general. The district considered in this book is small in area, but its records afford material for an investigation of a wide range of topics, including witchcraft, the Journals of George Fox and John Wesley, eighteenth-century factories, Warren Hastings at Daylesford, early ideals of women's education, mail coaches, and the revolt of agricultural laborers under Joseph Arch. Mrs. Henderson's inquiries have led her to question some of the statements commonly made by historians. She finds, for instance, sufficient evidence to disprove the theory that the growth of factories called the apprenticeship system into being, and she believes that the influence of the railways upon the migration of villagers into the towns has been much over-estimated. This tendency had gone far before the railways came, as may be inferred from the serious overcrowding in Manchester, Leeds, Liverpool, and Birmingham at the time of the Chartist risings. "Further, the rustic in search of employment does not travel by train; any and every day he is to be seen drifting up to town by the highways and hedges." Among the many curious notabilia scattered up and down the book may be mentioned the custom of ringing the congregation out of church on Sunday morning at Charlbury, which is believed to be a survival of the mid-day Angelus. Record should also be made of the comment of an aged woman at Enstone, who attributes the decay of a friendly spirit in that village to a cheapened press. "Folks were neighborly in my young days; they had need, when the papers were sixpence," and were lent from hand to hand. The writer has collected her facts by means of a diligent burrowing in the Bodleian, especially among the files of the *Oxford Journal* from 1753 onwards, by researches in parish registers, and by the use of the manuscript diary of a cottage weaver who lived at Charlbury late in the eighteenth century. She has also drawn largely from local oral tradition, which she has had reason to regard as much more trustworthy than commonly supposed.

—The fifth volume of Prof. Paul Fredericq's monumental 'Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Neerlandicæ,' which appears with the new year (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke), comprises only the period between September 24, 1525, and December 31, 1528, with an appendix of additions to the previous volumes. The sixth volume, now in preparation, will embrace an even shorter term—the three years, 1529 to 1531. With this wealth of material and conscientious exhaustiveness of research it is to be feared that the end of this valuable collection is still far off, and until it is completed no one can venture to write on the struggle of the Netherlands for religious liberty. There is yet to come a quarter of a century of the domination of Charles V., and then nearly half a century of Philip II., while this latest section is that in which the interest is greatest and the documentary evidence most abundant. We can only hope that life and strength may be spared to Professor Fredericq for the completion of his gigantic and most useful task.

—The first persecution which forms the subject of the present volume, was brisk enough to test the endurance of the reformers and the popular favor with which the reform was accepted. The machinery of persecution was not yet scientifically organized, and its operation was somewhat

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fitful, but the results were ghastly enough. Not the least suggestive among the documents are the accounts of expenses incurred in the execution of the sentences. When wood was dear, burning was not an economical process. When Hector van Dommenne was burnt at Bruges, the cordwood and faggots cost six livres, and a hundred bundles of straw thirty-six sous, to which the porterage added twenty sous; and in addition to this were the stake and the chains and other implements. The body, we are told, took a long while to burn, and it was not until evening that it was wholly reduced to ashes. When Pierrette Pourreau was burned at Fleurus, a bargain was made with Jehan, the "maistre de la haulte œuvre," by which he was paid five gold caroluses for his services in this and in torturing her twice; and there is a charge for three pots of wine given to her after the torture, for we are told that she was greatly exhausted. The confessors who attended her were likewise paid, but they were not admitted to the dinner with which the officers of justice regaled themselves after the execution, the cost of which they conscientiously charged to the town, so that the whole expense amounted to eleven livres, eight sous and six deniers. It is well sometimes to have a glimpse at the horrors of the good old times to which some sentimental enthusiasts look back with regret. The modern scientific study of history, so conspicuously illustrated in the admirable labors of Professor Fredericq, affords ample material to dispel the illusions so long maintained by writers of the romantic school.

THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY.

The Cambridge Modern History. Planned by the late Lord Acton, LL.D., Regius Professor of Modern History. Edited by A. W. Ward, Litt.D.; G. W. Prothero, Litt.D.; Stanley Leathes, M.A. Volume I., The Renaissance. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Few books of our time have been awaited by the learned world with more interest than the first volume of what is designed to be the most full, comprehensive and scientific history of modern times in the English language, or perhaps in any language. Its French and German competitors are neither so large in scale, nor to so great an extent the work of accomplished specialists, as this series of volumes is intended to be. The conception belongs to the most learned English-speaking man of our time; and Lord Acton was not more remarkable for his learning than for the breadth of his views and the severity of the standard of accuracy and finish which he set before himself, and held up to the contributors whom he enlisted.

The plan of the series has some elements of novelty. Each volume is to contain a number of separate chapters on particular sections or aspects of the history of the period covered by the volume. These chapters are written by different hands, and from different points of view. For instance, of the last two chapters in the present volume, that entitled "The Ancient Catholic Church" is the work of Dr. Barry, a Roman Catholic priest, while that entitled "The Eve of the Reformation" has been prepared by one of the oldest and most respected of our historical scholars, a Protestant and distinctly a Protestant, Mr. Henry C. Lea, of Philadelphia. Moreover, the chapters do not constitute a connected narrative. Sometimes they treat what is almost the same topic over and over again from different sides. Thus, the policy and careers of Pope Alexander the Sixth and Pope Julius the Second are handled thrice in three of the five chapters that are devoted, and rightly devoted, to Italy in the days of the Renaissance. Thus one may say that the book is really a series of monographs arranged on a system, a collection of essays on history rather than an historical narrative. There are some obvious drawbacks to this scheme. It may be less convenient for the purposes of reference than the conventional and familiar kind of history. It may fail to give so clear a view of the order of events. But it ought to have the great merits of securing a more thorough treatment of each particular department of study than could be expected from the labor of any one man or small group of men, and of enabling the important facts of history to be brought into their true connection, so as to illustrate leading principles or tendencies, better than can be done where the chronological succession of events is strictly followed. The very selection of subjects, the very titles of the chapters, are suggestive of the way in which history ought to be studied, and reveal the mind that framed this comprehensive scheme.

Lord Acton has, to the inconsolable regret of those who knew his attainments, not lived to see even the first volume of the treatise published. Neither is there a word of his writing in it. The Introduction which he had, it is understood, intended to prefix to it, summing up what the Europe of the Renaissance had received from the Middle Ages, was never composed. Some sort of introduction was needed, for the late Dr. Creighton's introductory note relates only to the scheme of the work, and does not launch the work itself by giving a picture of things as they stood before the action begins. This loss may be regretted, but cannot be repaired.

To review with any attempt at completeness the nineteen essays contained in this volume would be impossible within the limits of an article in these columns, so we can only indicate the general impressions which the book makes upon us. One of these impressions is that of thoroughness. The whole field of European history is covered, except that Scotland, Russia, and the Scandinavian kingdoms are not dealt with, being apparently reserved for the next volume. The treatment is careful, the methods are exact. There is no eloquence, no effort at picturesqueness. Facts and views are packed tight together in an eminently businesslike way, which is like the German way, except that the style is not dull, and that there is more compression than most German scholars achieve. We say "the style," for although these nineteen monographs are from seventeen different pens, they have in common this quality of businesslike directness and this avoidance of all ornament, so that the differences in manner and language between the various writers are not salient. The intense practicality which most of the writers show is probably due to the sense they have of the limits of space to which they must conform. Compression excludes ornament, and reduces even philosophical reflections to their minimum. The result is a book in which nothing can be skipped. In the condensation of the vast mass of matter it contains it reminds one of a dictionary. Yet it is not dry. The writing is generally vigorous and pointed.

Sir Richard Jebb, for instance, in his chapter on the Classical Renaissance, manages, together with a long catalogue of names and books, to give lively and effective characterizations of some of the great figures, such as Erasmus. Mr. Armstrong analyzes the character of Savonarola with penetration, and describes the dramatic incidents of his career with spirit. Dr. Garnett presents a clear and graceful narrative of the complicated policy and enterprises of the Popedom from the accession of Sixtus IV. to the death of Julius II., and puts as good a face as can fairly and properly be put upon the conduct of Alexander VI. Mr. E. J. Payne, who has allotted to him two enormous subjects, "The Age of Discovery" and "The New World" (A. D. 1426-A. D. 1565), presents in these chapters a summary and philosophical view of the course of exploration in East and West, and of the foundation of the Spanish dominion in America. So, too, Dr. A. W. Ward (Master of Peterhouse), who has undertaken the very tangled history of the Netherlands, gives us, in the compass of forty-five pages, a succinct narrative and a weighty estimate of the economic as well as political causes which told upon the prosperity of the Flemish towns, and created that singular divergence between the course of their fortunes and those of the northern part of the Low Countries which has lasted ever since, and which embodied itself seventy years ago in the creation of the Belgian monarchy.

Though we have selected for the sake of illustration a few only out of the nineteen monographs which the book contains, we can say, after having tested every one of the nineteen, that a remarkably high level of care is maintained through them all, and that all are pervaded by a truly scientific spirit. It remains to note some points of detail in which the execution of a plan excellent in itself is susceptible of improvement.

One of these points is the addition of a chronological table of events for the period covered by the volume. As several of the monographs do not follow a strictly chronological order, and as no dates are given in the margin, it is not always easy for the reader to fix a date or to correlate one chapter with another by noting the contemporaneity of the events recorded. The construction of such a chronological table might no doubt be attended with some difficulty, for the field covered is so wide that a good many parallel columns dealing with the different countries would be required. Still, the attempt ought to be made, for even a table less than perfect would be a help to the ordinary reader, if not so often needed by the professional student. Another omission, that of footnotes, is expressly stated to be a feature of the plan, and may doubtless be defended by strong arguments. Yet the persistent adherence to it has some disadvantages, one of which is that when some remarkable passage in an author is quoted or referred to, we do not know where in that author's works to look for the passage, which it may be nec-

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essary to examine in its *ipsissima verba* or with the context. The reference to some striking dicta of Francis Bacon's on pages 62-66 is an instance in point. There is, to be sure, at the end of the volume a very full and very carefully prepared bibliography for each monograph. It is a welcome addition to the volume, and compensates for the absence of constant references to the authorities on which the text of the several chapters is based. But it does not meet the particular difficulty to which we have referred. A third improvement, and one which might easily be introduced in the subsequent volumes, would be the amplification of the index to each volume, at present rather scanty. We are promised a full index to the whole work, but for that we shall have still some years to wait. Lastly, it would be a convenience—the point is small, yet worth a mention—to have in the corner, at the top of each page, the name of the writer of the particular chapter. The book is as much one for reference as for reading straight through, and it is rather troublesome to turn back to find in what particular author's hands one is at the moment.

Taken as a whole, this volume raises high hopes of the value to English historical literature which the work will have when completed. It brings together within a convenient compass a mass of carefully sifted and lucidly presented knowledge, such as one would otherwise have to extract from a large number of treatises, some, perhaps, not easy to procure. And it secures, better than most of us had ventured to hope, a certain unity of character and purpose. It makes the reader feel the similarity of conditions and influences which were at work in the chief countries of Europe, and it makes him also feel, though perhaps less clearly and fully, the differences in the circumstances of those countries which were destined to make the emancipation and stimulation of thought by the New Learning bear such different political and religious fruits in Spain and Italy, as compared with Germany and England. We rise from the book with a livelier sense of the skill with which its illustrious designer planned it, and with a sense also of the diligence and judgment shown by him and by the three eminent scholars who have succeeded to his work.

THE PHŒNICIANS AND THE ODYSSEY.

Les Phéniciens et l'Odyssée. Par Victor Bérard. Tome I. Paris: Armand Colin. 1902. Pp. 592, with 98 maps, plans, and cuts.

The Ancient Histories of a hundred years ago are as useless for scholars as a chemical treatise of the same year to a man of science. Hundreds of thousands of inscriptions have been found, bearing contemporary evidence to events in ancient Greece and Rome, Egypt, Babylonia, and Assyria, and clear light shines on many periods and lands which were shrouded in mist during the boyhood of scholars now living. The Hittites, whom many counted fabulous, have been rehabilitated as subjects of a widely extended empire. We are no longer obliged to scrutinize and weigh the evidence for the three accounts of the capture of Babylon as given by Herodotus, Xenophon, and the author of the Book of Daniel, since we have a contemporary report in the Annals of Nabonedus. But we know little more of the Phœnicians now than was known a century ago. The nation to which all western peoples indirectly owe their alphabets seems to have made little use of the art of writing to record its life and achievements in any of its trading-posts, which extended from the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea to the Atlantic Ocean. As a trading people the Phœnicians may have cared little for literature in the modern sense, but we should expect to find at least some copies of private or public contracts, inscriptions containing details of privileges granted and conditions demanded, as evidence of their sojourn in Greece or Sicily in the early ages when they were the chief mariners of the world, and when the Phœnician "ships of Tarshish" corresponded to the British East Indiamen of half a century ago. But in fact we have no such monumental evidence of Phœnician settlements in any Greek lands, and are obliged to trust to old traditions, the indications of names, and traces of religious influence. The Greeks believed that Cadmus, the Phœnician, founded Bœotian Thebes; and many other memories of Phœnician settlements, with strange religious rites which seem to have been borrowed from the same people, were retained in various parts of Greece. The Hellenes thought of the Phœnicians as bold sailors at a time when the Greeks themselves shrank from any voyage which would take them out of sight of land. But, curiously enough, the Greek nautical terms seem to have been uninfluenced by those of the Phœnicians. This is the more curious since the English borrowed many such terms from the Dutch, and the French in turn have borrowed many from the English. We cannot, then, suppose the Greeks to have been the pupils of the Phœnicians in the art of navigation. In a rather long list of words of common life which Bérard believes the Greeks to have borrowed from the Phœnicians, is found no nautical term. Influenced by similar observations, the historian Beloch goes so far as to say that "nothing proves the presence of the Phœnicians in the primitive Aegean." The book before us is intended to furnish such proof.

According to his publisher's announcement, Bérard aims to do for Homeric geography what Schliemann and Evans have done for Homeric history, and in particular to show that the Homeric accounts of places are not drawn from the imagination, even in what has been considered fairyland. He believes that the grotto of Calypso, the river of Nausicaa, the meadow of the Sirens, and the cave of Polyphemus may still be identified, and he accepts for the most part the old traditions as to the sites: Corfu is the land of the Phæacians, and Charybdis is the strait between Italy and Sicily. Like Strabo and Schliemann, he has full faith in the literal accuracy, the inerrancy, of the Homeric poems. His two main theses are, first, that a Phœnician thalassocracy in the Mediterranean either preceded or was contemporaneous with the composition of the Odyssey, about 850 B. C.; and, second, that the poet had before him the original or a translation of a Phœnician *periplus*, or itinerary, of a coasting voyage about the Mediterranean. The poet, on his theory, had not seen with his own eyes the sites of which he gives an account, but, on the other hand, he does not trust to "sailors' yarns." "The Homeric poems presuppose not only the use of writing, but also the study of written material." The poet was a native of Asia Minor, and had never been in Peloponnesus; the stories with regard to sandy Pylus were handed down in the royal family of Miletus, which claimed descent from old Nestor. To Bérard the wanderings of Odysseus appear a Phœnician (whether Sidonian or Carthaginian) *periplus*, put into Greek verse and poetic legends, with "anthropomorphizing of objects, humanizing of the forces of nature, and Hellenizing of the subject-matter." In names, routes, customs, conceptions, and theories, the Odyssey seems to our author to be not Greek. Even certain expressions (as "I have the honor to be," εὔχομαι εἶναι) seem to him Phœnician rather than Hellenic, and at least once the poet is suspected to have mistranslated an ambiguous Phœnician word. In short, Bérard accepts most heartily the doctrine that the Phœnicians were the masters of Homer. The distinguished Germanist Müllenhoff of Berlin suggested a similar theory thirty years ago, but did not advance detailed arguments in support of his position.

The Homeric material for a study of the Phœnicians is limited. They are mentioned in but six passages of the poems, twice in the Iliad, and four times in the Odyssey, and none of these passages gives detailed information. The poet tells us of Phœnicians in relations with Egypt, Crete, Libya, Elis, Lemnos, and Syrie (wherever this may be). They are characterized as sailors and traders, as skilful weavers and silversmiths, as tricky rogues who are ready to kidnap children or men and sell them into slavery. This is all that Homer has to say of them, and it seems a small basis for a work of which the first volume has 592 large pages.

Bérard was a member of the French School at Athens for three years, 1887-90, and had charge of the French excavations at Mantinea and Tegea, but he does not call himself an archæologist—rather he distrusts the conclusions of archæology. This distrust may be explained in part by the fact that archæology has little to say in favor of his theories. The references at the foot of the pages in the work before us are almost entirely to the accounts of ancient and modern travellers, and above all to the French Government's *Instructions Nautiques*. The greater part of the volume has been published in substance previously, mostly in the *Revue Archéologique;* but in the spring of 1901 the author followed in the track of Odysseus, accompanied by Mme. Bérard, who carried her photographic camera and furnished more than fifty views for this volume. The author has not been content with the study of maps and documents, but his eyes have seen land and sea from the point of view of the old mariners. He furnishes the reader, however, with many excellent maps, chiefly from the charts of the French Admiralty.

The author's main reliance for the establishment of his theses is on "topology and toponymy." Topology he would have re-

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lated to topography as geology to geography. The *-logies* penetrate beneath the surface to the law and reason of things. Topology shows under what circumstances and in what relations, with what ambitions and in what degree of culture, a definite site would be chosen as a centre of trade or of political life. If the circumstances are known, topology points confidently to the site; if the site is known, topology indicates the circumstances which led to its choice. Traders who come from the East are likely to seek different harbors from those chosen by traders from the West. Thus, in Sicily, Greek commerce brought wealth to Syracuse, Carthaginian to Agrigentum, and Roman to Palermo, and Bérard claims that the earliest cities of the Greek archipelago were built with reference to Phœnicia and Egypt. A trading-post held by foreigners will have a different situation from one controlled by the people of the country. Chalcedon, opposite Byzantium, and Byzantium itself are taken as types of the two forms of harbor desired by the earlier and the later commerce. Chalcedon was fitted not to control the land but to be independent of it, and this was a characteristic of the Phœnician settlements, in contrast with those of the Greeks, who came to remain and desired to extend their control over the territory. Bérard has made a careful study of the conditions of navigation on the Mediterranean in the second millennium B. C., with constant comparison of modern experiences, and large quotations from the *Instructions Nautiques*, showing what was natural and practicable and what was impossible for the early mariners with open boats. No one before him has applied modern knowledge of the Mediterranean and Aegean seas, their harbors, their currents, and their winds, to the interpretation of ancient Greek literature. Side by side with the Homeric story are placed extracts from modern authorities which illustrate the poet's familiarity with winds and currents.

Our author's consideration of the Greek trade routes by land is interesting, too. Athens had two harbors, the Piræus or Phalerum on the Saronic Gulf, and Oropus on the Eubœan Strait. Thebes had three harbors—one on the Corinthian Gulf, Megara on the Saronic Gulf, and Chalcis at the Euripus. In Argolis, Mycenæ, strongly and magnificently built in the uttermost recess of the plain, about a day's journey from the coast, on the flank of a mountain and fortified by cliffs and ravines, is the key to the passage between the Gulfs of Nauplia and of Corinth, and its masters took tribute from the passing caravans. The neighboring fields alone could never have made Mycenæ "rich in gold." According to Bérard, a great trade route in very early times crossed Arcadia, starting at Gythium, and ending at Triphylian Pylus, a little south of the mouth of the Alpheus, with stations at Sparta, Lycosura, and Aliphera. He makes the best argument which has been offered for Triphylian Pylus as the seat of old Nestor, and identifies the site with Samikon, a little south of Olympia, where, at a height of about 900 feet, are walls which Lolling in Baedeker's Guide calls "perhaps the finest extant specimen of the ancient Greek polygonal building style."

In treating of toponymy, the author is conscious that he is on dangerous ground. He lays no stress on the Phœnician derivation of isolated names, but seeks a series of names, or still better a doublet, where the Phœnician and the Greek names exist side by side—as, Thera (said to mean *Beautiful* in Phœnician) is equivalent to *Kalliste*. A group of Phœnician names is found about Megara. Salamis, of course, is the Port of Peace; compare Melchizedek "King of *Salem*," which is King of Peace, and *Solomon*, who was a man of peace as compared with his father, and the modern *salaam*, which implies a wish for peace. Megara itself is interpreted as meaning *cavern;* Caria, its acropolis, means *city* (compare *Car*thage, 'Newtown'); its King Nisus is a *Hawk*, and Nisæa, the promontory of its harbor, is *Hawk's Point;* Minoa, the island off its harbor, is the *Island of Rest* (compare Manoah, father of Samson); Abroté, the wife of Nisus, is *Flying Thing;* their daughter Scylla is *Rock*. Cadmus, of course, is Kedem, the *Man from the East*, and Europa is the *One from the West;* but why the Greeks should have used Phœnician words for these designations the author does not tell. All these etymologies must be judged by specialists in Semitic philology; and clearly, if they stand, we must assume an important Phœnician settlement, much more than a mere trading-post, at Megara, and a well-established trade route through Bœotia under the control of the same people. Why the Phœnicians withdrew from a land where they had such a footing, our author does not consider. No Greek tradition mentions a conflict of races, an anti-Semitic war, which might have led to their expulsion.

The Homeric Syrie is identified with the modern Syra, which was the chief seaport of the Aegean Sea during a large part of the last century. This was of no importance in Hellenic times, and is hardly mentioned by Greek authors; all the ancient inscriptions found on the island are of the Roman period. Bérard tries to show that it was, however, a natural centre of trade for Phœnician corsairs, and had just such a port as they liked, with adjoining islet. The name Syrie he believes to be a mere repetition of Tyre, *Rock*, and the same as Syria east of the Mediterranean. Another instance of this root he finds in Syracuse, which he considers a Phœnician name for *Rock of the Halcyon*. Another identification is that of the island of Calypso with a Parsley Island (Isla de Perejil) at the foot of Apes Hill, just outside of the Strait of Gibraltar, though this has no springs, no trees, and no vines. The Phœnician name of this island Bérard believes to have been I-Spania, equivalent to *la Cachette, Calypso*, and he thinks it to have had such prominence in itineraries that it became attached to the neighboring region on the north, when the island itself was superseded by Tarshish, and that thence we have received our name for Spain.

The last ninety pages of the volume are devoted to an argument to prove that the city of the Phæacians was on a promontory of the west coast of the island of Corfu, just across the island from the main harbor. The Homeric land and city of the Phæacians have distinct characteristics, but such as are found in other parts of the Mediterranean. The land had high mountains, cliffs by the sea, and reefs; at a little distance from the rocks, a river flowing into the sea, with sloping pebbly banks, where women came from the city to lave their linen; a city surrounded by a high wall, on a peninsula with a harbor on either side; a sacred grove, with a place of assembly; and copious springs which irrigated the king's garden by the palace, and supplied the town with water. The promontory chosen by Bérard seems not more than 1,000 feet long or broad, and at least 250 feet high. The sides are precipitous, and the slope toward the open sea is at an angle of about forty-five degrees. The site never was surrounded by a wall, and has no spring upon it; no remains of ancient buildings have been found. The river to which Nausicaa and her maidens resorted for laundry purposes is found so far away that the author spent an hour and a half in driving from it to the promontory over a macadamized road; and the photographs show it to be no broad stream such as that up which Odysseus swam—in fact, no one could swim in it at all—and the shipwrecked hero might better have made his way upon the shore on either side of the stream. One who interprets Homer so literally as Bérard, ought also to appreciate the force of this objection to Corfu as the land of the Phæacians: from Calypso's island, which, as we have seen, he thinks to be at the Strait of Gibraltar, Odysseus sails for seventeen days and nights "with the Great Bear which men call also the Wain on his left hand," *i. e.*, due east. Then he is shipwrecked, and driven by a strong north wind for two days and nights before he reaches the land of the Phæacians. If he was north of Corfu at the time of his shipwreck, he had sailed directly past his home on Ithaca, which nothing indicates. But if, as the Homeric story would show, he was due east of Gibraltar when the storm struck him, the north wind would have carried him to Africa and not up the Adriatic. Thus we cannot accept this proof for the identification of the site. In company with several distinguished scholars, who have laid stress on the good seamanship of the two peoples, Bérard believes the Phæacians to be Phœnicians. But these scholars have failed to notice that while the Phœnicians are eminently traders, the bitterest insult which a young Phæacian noble can devise for Odysseus is the word that he "does not seem like an athlete, but like one who goes as commander of seamen or as a supercargo, to be mindful of wares and gains." Odysseus himself and the rest accept this as an insult, and the young noble is compelled to make an humble apology; but no Homeric Phœnician could have felt or shown such disdain for trade.

In his second volume, Bérard proposes to identify the cave of Polyphemus, the home of Circe, and the other places visited by Odysseus. The exact relations of these places he believes to have been perfectly distinct to the minds of the Carthaginians, who invented the dreadful stories about them in order to frighten the Greeks away from their trading-posts. They desired to retain their monopoly in the west.

The work is well printed and beautifully illustrated. The author's style is pleasant and idiomatic, and the reader is annoyed by few minor errors in interpretation. We trust a good index will accompany the second volume, for a large amount of interesting matter is introduced where an ordinary reader might not expect it.

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SULLY'S ESSAY ON LAUGHTER.

An Essay on Laughter: Its Forms, its Causes, its Development, and its Value. By James Sully, M.A., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. 441 pp.

That pleasure and pain tread on each other's heels, that veiled Melancholy sits "in the very temple of Delight," is now the commonplace of every minor poet. Like so many other truths, this was detected by the fine palate of Plato, and in his 'Philebus' makes a first appearance in philosophical literature. Aristotle and Burton pursued the discussion of mirth as the complement of melancholy, and, in poetry, from Andromache's tearful smile in the Iliad to Keats and Swinburne, "Pleasure with pain for leaven" has been sung as the portion of man. Aristotle's lost essay on Comedy was written as a companion-piece to his theory of Tragedy. But for a thorough and independent treatment of laughter, the world has had to wait for the inspiration of modern psychology.

Prof. Sully, who is well known as the author of 'The Human Mind' and 'Studies of Childhood,' has now given us a serious inquiry into the laws that control laughter, and a determined attempt to define the characteristics and the limits of the objective region of the laughable. So far the psychologist. But Professor Sully is a philosopher, which is more than can be said for many modern psychologists. He goes on to test the value of laughter in human relations, and to give it a purpose in the scheme of human life. To quote his own summary (p. 392):

"In looking for the germ of laughter, we found ourselves in the wide and misty plains of biological speculation. In tracing its development, we took a dip into the pleasant vales of child-psychology and anthropology, and then tried to climb the winding paths of social evolution. Having reached in this way the heights of modern civilization, we made a special investigation into the social organization of laughter, as represented in the art of comedy, and into the gradual appearance of a new type of laughter, essentially individual and independent of the social standard, to which is given the name of humor. Throughout this voyage of discovery we have kept in view the function of the laughing spirit in the life of the individual and of the community."

Professor Sully, in reviewing previous theories, dismisses as too remote for the conceptions of the ordinary man the Hegelian notion that "the comic is a moment in the dialectic process which the æsthetic Idea has to pass through," and dwells chiefly on the theories of Kant and Schopenhauer. Two ways of envisaging the laughable stand out conspicuously in the history of the subject. The moral theory, or theory of degradation, dates from Aristotle, who said that comedy is "an imitation of characters of a lower type—not, however, in the full sense of the word bad." Hobbes amplified this theory of the ludicrous, and defined laughter as a "sudden glory" at the realization of the inferiority of others to one's self. "All the world is queer," said the Quaker, "except thee and me; and even thee is a little queer." When we laugh at this, our mirth is due to the "sudden glory" that follows on our immediate recognition of our superiority to the complacent Quaker. Bain enlarges Hobbes's principle, and improves on it by adding that, in addition to the emotion of power or glory, the spectacle of degradation brings with it the feeling of release from constraint.

The second main theory is that of incongruity. This is intellectual rather than moral, and goes back to Schopenhauer. It is an interesting point that the German theories of laughter tend to be intellectual, like their theories of ethics, while the British philosophers dwell on the moral aspects of laughter as of ethics. Schopenhauer's theory of incongruity is important, but the illustration that he selects is worthy of a German metaphysician. It is "the amusing look of the angle formed by the meeting of the tangent and the curve of the circle; which look is due to the reflection that an angle implies the meeting of two lines which, when prolonged, intersect, whereas the straight line of the tangent and the curve of the circle are able merely to graze at one point, where, strictly speaking, they are parallel." The illustration is unconvincing, but an element of incongruity must stand in a comprehensive theory of laughter. Kant's theory placed the cause of laughter in "the sudden transformation of a tense expectation into nothing." One objection to such one-sided theories is that, as Lotze said of Kant's explanation, they do not show us why we should *laugh* rather than cough or sigh at a moment, say, of dissolved expectation. Professor Sully easily shows that such hypotheses will not bear the strain put upon them. Loss of dignity and incongruity will account for many occasions of laughter, and they often coöperate. Herbert Spencer's phrase, a "descending incongruity," obviously combines them, but the realm of the ludicrous is wider than the theorists have implied.

Professor Sully's inquiry into the occasions and causes of laughter dwells at length on forms that are due to a sense stimulus, where the intellect is subordinate, *e. g.*, the laughter due to tickling. In drawing up twelve categories of the laughable, he points out that the things we laugh at have usually more than one "distinguishably amusing facet." It is not always easy to say where the fun begins or which kind of fun it is. One chapter is devoted to the origin of laughter in the inevitable cradle of the race, and discusses the supposed rudiments of mirth in animals. That the laugh followed the smile is a theory supported by the study of the modern infant, whose babble is a prelude to laughter as to speech. Professor Sully goes on to trace in some detail the development of laughter during the first three years of the life of certain babies who lived, as it were, under the microscope, who never smiled unseen, who were tickled for the purposes of statistics, whose every passing emotion was recorded with a date as a contribution to Child-Study.

The eighth chapter, on the "Laughter of Savages," appeared as an essay in the *International Monthly*, and one may note in passing that every one of Professor Sully's chapters would stand alone as a separate essay. The social uses of laughter, the influence of the mirthful spirit on social changes and the refining effects of culture on hilarity are discussed in detail. Professor Sully finds in several varieties of laughter a relief from strain; this would account for the explosive vigor which is one element in a laugh. "Perhaps the first great laugh was produced by man, or by his proximate progenitor, when relief came after fear or the strain of battle." The nervous titter of a congregation at an incident in church that seems unbefitting the solemnity of the occasion should, he thinks, be classed rather as a case of this relief from nervous tension than as a case of "degradation." Another element in laughter that has been practically ignored in German theories is the play-mood. "To be glad with the gaiety of laughter, to throw off the stiff and wearing attitude of seriousness, . . . is in truth to begin to play" (p. 145). Professor Sully therefore makes the principle of play fundamental in his theory of laughter.

The distinction between choral laughter, which is declining, and humor, which is individual laughter and probably on the increase, leads to a charming chapter on "Humour," the laugh of the mind. One remembers the regret expressed by Flaubert that, as he grew older, his sympathy for men and things became disproportionately keen and destroyed his sense of humor. Professor Sully tells us that, though sympathy is essential to humor, it must not be allowed to overbalance one's humorous appreciation. Humor, "nourished by sympathy, tends, when something of philosophic width of contemplation is reached, to combine the social and the individual mode of projection by taking up the self into the spectacle of the whole." Satire, on the other hand, projects society, turning it into derision; while comedy projects the eccentric individual or group of individuals as a laughable show. In the realm of art, comedy plays the most important rôle in stimulating the laughter of mankind. Professor Sully's analysis of comedy, to which he devotes one of his longest chapters, is about as long as Mr. Meredith's fascinating essay; if not so brilliant, it is more profound and not less humorous. It might well be reprinted separately as a contribution to literature for the sake of those whom the present work might not reach.

In his last chapter, on the "Value and Limitations of Laughter," Professor Sully does not forget the claims of the "agelast"—to use Mr. Meredith's word. Laughter is not for those who have a great mission in life and live in the shadow of a cause.

"If Rousseau had been a great laugher, we should certainly never have had his picturesque and instructive attack on civilization and all that flowed from it. Would Dante and Milton and the other builders of the vast and sombre architecture of verse have achieved their task if the laughing imp had been pulling vigorously at their coat tails? How many of our valuable social institutions would have been built up if the beginners had been keenly alive to the absurd aspects of the bunglings which are wont to characterize first attempts?" (p. 425).

Professor Sully's forecast of the future of laughter is cautious as befits a humorist. But he points out certain tendencies which bear on the question. This is not an age of mirth or optimism. We no longer talk, like our grandfathers, of the perfectibility of man. Our enthusiasm for the future is mainly devoted to the perfectibility of machinery.

"It is as though men had no time to laugh. Even at a social entertainment you will find men and women who meet your playful challenge only with a niggardly giggle, which they instantly suppress; poor

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distracted souls, unable for a moment to free themselves from the chaos of social claims which haunts them."

Even the deep-chested, hearty laugh of the savage is being replaced by the "mission giggle." We know of communities that do very well without laughter of any kind. But Professor Sully hopes for the maintenance and increase of the humorous spirit; laughter saturated with reflection may survive and preserve the capacity for a happier age. Professor Sully is himself a worthy successor of that "laughing philosopher" of Greece whose epithet seems to indicate the rarity of the type in those days of truer choral laughter. His present work will appeal, as did his essay on "Pessimism," to the student of literature no less than to the psychologist and the philosopher.

Wayfarers in Italy. By Katharine Hooker. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. Pp. 309.

A lady traveller who goes to Brescia under the impression that it is an unknown city, and still says nothing about the masterpieces of early Renaissance architecture that are its glory, nothing about the number and beauty of the altarpieces of Moretto there (though painting is what she has specially come to Italy to see), and nothing about the statue of the Winged Victory, should compensate us in some way for these remarkable omissions. She does, indeed, note the number of fountains, in which Brescia is second only to Rome among the cities of Italy. For the rest, she found the pillow of her bed unpleasantly hard and knobby, and indulges thereanent in a disquisition on bedclothes in out-of-the-way places. She followed the counsel of some wiseacre, and, instead of breakfasting comfortably at the hotel, went out to a café, where she deservedly got bad coffee and worse butter (but good rolls), which she consumed in an atmosphere of cigarette smoke. She records the liking she has for the fussy circumstance of getting rarely visited picture galleries opened for her, as well as for "browsing" alone among the treasures inside. She pays her tribute to the charm of Italian politeness as exemplified in a lady of whom she asked her way, and with whom she made a bit of conversation by telling that she was from America. She makes it quite clear that Brescia was altogether to her mind, and—that is all. No, she took a lovely drive to Paitone to see a picture by Moretto, told the coachman before getting there that she had come all the way from America to see it, and then spent so much time in missing the right chapel that at last she had only a twilight vision—glorified, it is true—of the beautiful Madonna. As an account of Brescia the chapter is to the last degree insufficient, but there is something to be said for it as a record of personal impressions and experience.

This lady belongs to a class of travellers of which America furnishes a larger contingent than any other country. We hasten to say that as a class it is a very good sort. We have often admired its union of energy in seeing all there is to be seen, with enjoyment of everything that is beautiful, or grotesque, or human; its happy philosophy over the petty miseries of travel, and its unfailing kindness to all with whom it has to do. It is never grudging in the matter of fees, though it has its notion of thrift; it may be indignant at impositions, but is never soured by them, and we do not fear the reproach of a bull when we say that it waters its path with the milk of human kindness. If sometimes sentimental, it is, on the whole, more just to apply to its members the term *genial;* they restore its ancient respectability to a word that in our day has been sadly abused. It is quite a matter of course that they, almost without exception, come from families in which good breeding and a certain culture are hereditary. If they are neither profound scholars nor connoisseurs, they at least inform themselves from good books, and they prefer good works of art to bad. The author under consideration shows a particularly nice taste in paintings, and a knowledge of contemporary Italian poetry that is far from common.

A word, however, as to the feelings for art of this and of many other writers. A lady, who did not exactly belong to the class of which we have been speaking, was the wife of the American consul in a large city which boasts one of the most magnificent galleries of pictures in the world. She confided, however, to the consul of a European Power that she did not care much for the old masters in the museum: "There was nothing in them that spoke to a mother's heart." This consul, inspired, no doubt, by motives that were not of the noblest, lost no time before repeating, with a touch of malice, to colleagues and friends, the worthy lady's opinion; and yet he must have known that of those who unfeignedly admire those same pictures, the greater part resemble the American lady in that the art of them is not what they appreciate, and that they seek in them the gratification of some sentiment that is not æsthetic. They differ from her in that they find what they seek, while she did not. In the book under examination the somewhat rare mention of pictures seems to indicate that the ruling interest in them is human, and yet they reveal refined perceptions and familiarity with what is best in art, which is as much as we have a right to ask of them. They are quite in harmony with the predominant characteristics of the book, which are those of an intelligent woman with keen and varied sympathies and of infinite kindliness.

And it is this last quality that overtops all the others: the railway porters, the waiters, the *vetturini,* the custodians who serve her (and, as a matter of course, her gondolier), the very children who follow her, all come in for such immortality as she can bestow upon them. She is continually getting interested in people in the streets, in shops, wherever she goes, in fact, and in telling of them she forgets to describe the churches, galleries, palaces, that are what she thought she came for. And every once in a while she manages to invade some interior, humble or palatial, and then a great cementing of the universal brotherhood takes place. She is always delighted with the spontaneous, sunny character of Italian politeness, and it bespeaks an answering quality in the genial traveller that she so frequently elicits and so heartily responds to its charm. If "kind hearts are more than coronets," we may assume that a record of Italo-American civilities is worth any amount of amateur description of well-known monuments, and may even be accepted in place of art criticism. It is certain that such a work does not encroach upon the province of the guide-book. When she will, however, our author can interest her readers in things as well as persons; the chapter on Avezzano and the results obtained by Prince Torlonia from the draining of Lake Fucino, by way of example, is there to prove the contrary. Her muse is homely, and in general chooses to tell about things not too bright and good for human nature's daily food; but we shall have given an erroneous idea of our opinion if we have not made it plain that we have enjoyed reading 'Wayfarers in Italy,' of which it is no disparagement to say that, of all the pleasant things in it, the pleasantest is the evidence it furnishes as to the character of the writer, one of the best and most charming examples of the class to which we have assigned her.

From blunders in statement or in the use of Italian words, and other common blemishes of a tourist's book, this one is commendably free. We may say, however, that *panetone* (always under the same name) is a specialty of most of the cities of north Italy, and not of Venice alone. We are puzzled, too, at being told that Fiesole is to the *south* of Florence, that the Anglo-American hotel in that city is "a little too far up the river," and that driving westward from Brescia the mountains are to your left. It is still more to be regretted that, in telling of the Poldi-Pezzoli museum at Milan, the things that our writer thought alone worthy of anything approaching description, are the only serious lapses from taste in that charming collection.

The volume is a fair one to look upon, well printed on good paper, and illustrated with photographs taken by one of the author's company, which never repeat the things that Alinari and Brogi and Naya and Anderson have made familiar to all the world, and are sometimes good. There is a sufficient index.

Modern Spiritualism: A History and a Criticism. By Frank Podmore. London: Methuen; New York: Scribners. 1902. 2 vols., xviii., 307; xii., 374.

Mr. Podmore is the most sceptical of psychical researchers; so sceptical, indeed, that his readers must sometimes wonder why he should have thought it worth his while to persist in his researchings into a subject which he seems to consider as mostly, if not entirely, compounded of varying proportions of fraud and delusion. At the same time, he is one of the very few of the writers on such topics who has really studied them, and possesses an extensive and first-hand acquaintance with the evidence. He is thus well equipped for a critical history of Spiritualism, and has, moreover, extended his researches into the obscurest depths of an almost inaccessible and forgotten literature. And as he selects judiciously, writes well, and has provided a good index, the resulting book is not only interesting, but likely to become the standard work on the subject. The only drawback is the bias; for Mr. Podmore seems to assume that there is something intrinsically absurd and incredible about the spiritualistic interpretation of the anomalous phenomena connected with trance, antomatism, hypnotism, and mediumship. But as Mr. Podmore makes no attempt to conceal his bias, and

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not infrequently allows it to provoke him to entertainingly satirical remarks, and as, moreover, a similar bias is very widely prevalent among cultivated persons, it is not likely to be a serious obstacle to the success of his work. Mr. Podmore's danger is rather that he may seem to his readers to have been too successful in explaining everything away, and may thereby destroy the interest in his study. In this way his very ingenuity and plausibility, acting on a public which is either wildly credulous or unjustifiably indifferent, may operate as a real hindrance to the further exploration which his subject seems manifestly to require.

And so it seems not inappropriate to point out that Mr. Podmore's rationalistic explanations are by no means always completely satisfactory. In dealing, *e. g.*, with the extraordinary testimony for D. D. Home's miracles, Mr. Podmore is driven to a number of rather violent hypotheses, which culminate in the attribution to Home (ii., p. 269) of "a faculty of inducing false perceptions in his clients." And even his scepticism, which appears to be largely temperamental, is clearly distinguishable from the scepticism either of vulgar ignorance or of scientific conservatism, and has, moreover, to make a number of concessions to the facts. He admits, for instance, that the long-continued denial of the facts of hypnotism by medical orthodoxy was highly discreditable. He concedes in the main the genuineness of the various automatisms, trances, impersonations, inspirational speaking and writing, etc., even though he explains them by psychological principles which could hardly have been devised but for the interest in these phenomena. He makes a point of accepting the telepathic experiments of the Society for Psychical Research, although he doubts whether the thought-transference they seem to imply involves more than an obscure action of brain upon brain. He needs, indeed, to assume telepathy in order to explain the evidence derived from Mrs. Piper's trances, which produces (ii., p. 345) "the almost complete conviction that Mrs. Piper is possessed of some faculty beyond the normal—a faculty at the lowest of tapping the thoughts of her interviewers."

But beyond this Mr. Podmore will not go: to communications from the dead he will only say "not proven." To that, perhaps, a judicious man, viewing the present state of the evidence and the imperfections of all but the most recent records, would be inclined to agree; but there would also seem to him to be occasion enough for further inquiry in the matter, and glimpses enough of stupendous possibilities to demand from him the preservation of a perfectly open-minded suspense of judgment. This position Mr. Podmore would not, apparently, grant him; for he attributes to nature, what certainly seems true of human nature—an abhorrence of a mugwump (i., p. xviii.). But perhaps there are cases, in science as in politics, when the attitude of a mugwump is more intrinsically reasonable than that either of a partisan or of a Gallio.

Ancient and Modern Engineering and the Isthmian Canal. By William H. Burr, C.E. John Wiley & Sons.

This book, as stated in the preface or introduction, consists of six parts, each part representing a lecture delivered at the Cooper Union in New York, in the early months of 1902. The first four lectures, which cover the subjects of Ancient and Modern Engineering, have been extended into several chapters of very unequal lengths. The last two lectures, one of which describes the Nicaragua Canal and the other the Panama Canal, and which are practically condensations of the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, of which Mr. Burr was a member, are apparently printed about as they were delivered. Ancient Engineering is covered by the first part, consisting of five chapters, which contain descriptions of hydraulic and structural works from the early Egyptian period to the Roman. Modern Engineering is divided into three parts, Bridges, Waterworks, and Railroads, a division which the author can hardly have intended to be exhaustive, and which excludes the principal branches of mechanical and electrical engineering, as well as the development of water powers, one of the most important branches of civil engineering. It would, of course, be impossible to cover all these subjects in six lectures in any satisfactory way, but it might have been wiser to adopt a title limited to the subjects treated.

In general, the book is of a popular character, easily understood by the average reader. The second part, however, is an exception, as six of its eight chapters are largely mathematical. The book is well illustrated, and is a very fair presentation of the specific subjects which it covers. Two or three errors may be pointed out. In the early portion granite is spoken of as the prominent material in the Egyptian pyramids, which are almost entirely limestone, granite being used only in a few trimmings. Another unfortunate error appears on page 326, where the gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches on the New York Central Railroad and 4 feet 9 inches on the Pennsylvania Railroad is shown between centres of rails instead of the clear distance between heads—an error so obvious that it would not trouble an engineer, but might impart erroneous ideas to a layman. In the historical section devoted to bridges, one is tempted to ask why, in the list of wooden trusses now superseded, the MacCallum truss, which was for a time one of the most prominent, is omitted.

A book of this kind, which is largely a compilation, loses much of its value from lack of an index. The author's belief that the table of contents supplies the information ordinarily given by a comprehensive index, is one with which persons accustomed to use an index are very loath to agree.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. K., and Trent, W. P. A History of the United States. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.50.
Armsby, H. P. The Principles of Animal Nutrition. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
Bacon, E. M. Literary Pilgrimages in New England. Silver, Burdett & Co. $2.
Bigelow, John. The Mystery of Sleep. New ed. Harpers.
Carter, C. F. Some By-ways of California. The Grafton Press.
Derby, George. Derby Anniversary Calendar. James T. White & Co. 50 cents.
Doyle, A. C. The Great Boer War. Complete edition. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Dumolard, Henry. Le Japon Politique, Economique, et Social. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Ely, Helena R. A Woman's Hardy Garden. Macmillan. $1.75.
Foster, J. J. The Stuarts. 2 vols. London: Dicklnson's; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Goodloe, Carter. Calvert of Strathore. Scribners. $1.50.
Helm, Gustav, and Becker, Michel. Commercial German. 2 parts. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Huntington, W. R. Theology's Eminent Domain, and Other Papers. Thomas Whittaker. 25c.
Ingham, J. H. Pompeii of the West, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Isham, F. S. Under the Rose. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company.
Kleemeier, Job. Handbuch der Bibliographie. Leipzig: A. Hartlebens Verlag; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. Mediæval India under Mahommedan Rule, 712 to 1764. (The Story of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lawson, A. G. A Sure Method with Christian Science. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Letters and Literary Remains of Edward Fitzgerald. Vols. i., ii., iii. Macmillan.
McMurray, C. A. The Elements of General Method, Based on the Principles of Herbart. Rev. ed. Macmillan. 90 cents.
McNeill, Angus. The Egregious English. London: Grant Richards; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Outing. Vol. xl. The Outing Pub. Co.
Parker, P. L. The Heart of John Wesley's Journal. Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.50.
Patterson, Annie W. The Story of Oratorio. (Music-Story Series.) London: The Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Shedd, P. W. The Oceanides. The Grafton Press.
Taylor, J. J. Christian Science Cult. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Terenti Afri Comœdiæ. Edited by R. T. Tyrrell. (Oxford Texts). Henry Frowde.
Thackeray, W. M. The Paris Sketch Book. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
The Georgian Period: Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work. Part XII. American Architect and Building News Co.
The Journal of Arthur Stirling. D. Appleton & Co.
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